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The Payment of American Teachers

By E. S. EVENDEN

THE discovery of the American public schools by the American people may be said to be one of the results of the war. As a people, most of us knew that we had public schools, but it took the unusual demands of the war to make us nationally conscious of the work which those schools had done, in some respects very well, of the many things which they had not done, and of their tremendous potentiality for future development and social stability. We found that instead of the 5,000,000 illiterates we were supposed to have, one-fifth or more of our adult population, as indicated by tests in the army, could neither write a letter nor read a newspaper. We found that on the basis of physical examination 30 per cent. of the registrants in the draft were physically incapable of rendering general military service. We became conscious when selecting leaders that only about one pupil in ten completes the high school, and only about one in a hundred graduates from college. We became aware that over 4,000,000 children were being taught by teachers less than 21 years of age, with little or no high school training, and with no professional preparation for their work. Only about 25 per cent. of the teachers of the country are professionally prepared to the extent of two years' professional training beyond the completion of a high school course. We found, moreover, that even with the existing low standards there was an actual shortage of teachers at the beginning of the year to the number of 50,000, after 120,000 positions had been filled by "emergency teachers." These conditions are not all due to the work of the schools in the past, but the work of the schools for the future is directly concerned with each of them—not only with them, but also with most of the social, political, and economic elements of our civilization which are undergoing or demanding readjustment.

The leaders of the National Education Association realized that the teacher is by far the most important factor in the efficiency of the schools, and that the salary paid the teacher is in turn the most important factor in her efficiency. In order to assist in the betterment of teachers' salaries, an exhaustive study of the salaries and living expenses of teachers throughout the United States was undertaken by the Association. Under the guidance of its President, Dr. G. D. Strayer, I was permitted to conduct this investigation, the most important results of which are given here for the first time. (The complete report will appear soon as a special report of the National Education Association.)

Early in February, 1919, a blank was sent to city and county superintendents, selected at random from places of all sizes and from all sections of the country, asking for information relative to the salaries actually paid teachers, the number of teachers leaving during the year, the schedules of salaries in operation, the standards of preparation set, and the cost of living. At the same time a blank was sent to be filled out by individual teachers, asking for information in greater detail on the above items over a period of two years. The replies received from 423 city superintendents are truly representative of city conditions over the entire country, since cities of all sizes in all sections of the country are represented. (Only 10 of the replies were from county superintendents and involved so few teachers that the conditions of the rural communities are not indicated by the findings of this study.) Fifteen thousand of the blanks to be filled out by individual teachers were returned and are almost as representative of the entire country as the other list. In order to make the results more usable, the cities were grouped into six groups according to size, and five according to geographical location.[1]

From tabulations of the actual salaries received by teachers during 1918-19 the following median[2] salaries were found:

Group	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Total
Elementary	$936	$889	$866	$774	$677	$693	$856
Intermediate ...	1,226	1,007	1,047	943	775	738	951
High School....	1,513	1,288	1,242	1,097	944	918	1,224
All Schools	1,013	943	928	841	750	741	917

From these medians it is seen that teachers in the elementary schools in our cities receive a salary of $856. The median salaries decrease rapidly as the size of the city decreases. If this decrease is continued down to the small out-of-the-way rural school the salary diminishes also until it becomes as low as $7.50 per week for a school year of six months—an annual salary of $180 for the teacher who presides over that particular "cradle of democracy." The Commissioner of Education has given the average salary for all teachers in the United States in 1918 as $630.64. This means that considerably more than half of the 750,000 teachers in the country are receiving less than that amount.

When the salaries are distributed with regard to geographical location, we see the wide variation which exists between sections in the matter of teachers' salaries:

Group	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Elementary	$823	$773	$807	$961	$1,132	$856
Intermediate	899	832	889	962	1,000	951
High School.....	1,139	1,036	1,107	1,273	1,559	1,224
All Schools.....	869	794	871	1,015	1,187	917

From these median salaries it is clear that the cities in the Southern States pay noticeably the lowest salaries in all branches of school work. They would be much lower even than these if the salaries reported had in all cases included the colored teachers, whose salaries are generally less than half as much as those paid white teachers in the same communities. The highest salaries are paid in the cities of the extreme West. This is true as groups are compared, but not necessarily true of individual cities. New York city, for instance, ranks first among American cities

[1] Size group I, cities with population over 100,000
" " II, " " " between 50,000 and 100,000
" " III, " " " " 25,000 " 50,000
" " IV, " " " " 10,000 " 25,000
" " V, " " " " 5,000 " 10,000
" " VI, " " " below 5,000
Geographical group A, Me., Mass., N. H., N. J., N. Y., Pa., R. I., and Vt.
" " B, Ala., Ark., Del., D. C., Fla., Ga., Ky., La., Md., Miss., N. C., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va., and W. Va.
" " C, Ill., Ind., Mich., Ohio, and Wis.
" " D, Ia., Kan., Minn., Mo., Neb., N. D., Okla., and S. D.
" " E, Ariz., Cal., Col., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. M., Ore., Utah, Wash., and Wy.

[2] The median or mid-point is the point on the scale which divides the distribution exactly in half, one half of the cases falling below and the other half above. As a measure of central tendency the median is less influenced by the fewer places paying very high or very low salaries than other measures

in the median salary paid its high school teachers, $2,512, but it ranks seventh among the cities included in this study in the median salary paid its elementary teachers, $1,283. These salaries seem relatively high, and yet an examination of living conditions and other salaries paid in New York city makes them in reality relatively low. A study of the amounts earned in different occupations, from data obtained from a local New York city draft board, indicates that New York city pays its teachers on the same wage level as butchers, chauffeurs, store clerks, machinists, tailors, and waiters. The median amount of schooling in all these groups is considerably less than the completion of the eighth grade, while the median amount of schooling of the teachers is almost double that amount.*

There are certain other matters to be considered which will show how inadequate the salaries of teachers really are. These matters are the teacher's salary in relation to the cost of living and the teacher's salary in relation to the salaries paid other occupations.

The average salary for all teachers in the United States has increased 16 per cent. in the last five years. During the same time the price of all necessary commodities has practically doubled. As a consequence the teachers of America, poorly paid in 1914-15, find themselves only about half as well paid today as then, and this in the face of constantly increasing demands for additional preparation. Stated in other terms, the teacher who began teaching in 1914-15 finds that, as a reward for five years of public service, she has to solve this problem: I am paid a dollar for doing a piece of work; a kind public gives me 16 cents more, and then takes one-half of what I then have; how much do I receive for my work? This does not in any way exaggerate the generosity of the public in the matter of teachers' salaries. In the replies from the city superintendents it was found that 85 per cent. of the cities reporting grant an annual increase to elementary teachers of $50 or less. Of what value is such an increase when all of it and often more will be needed for the additional cost of room and board alone? How much additional "joy in her work" should a community expect from a teacher in return for the $18 and $20 increase to her annual salary which was often given during the past year?

The National War Labor Board, in an exhaustive inquiry into the cost of living in Schenectady, set $15 as the minimal weekly amount upon which a girl can live. About 60 per cent. of the teachers of the country are teaching this year for less than the $780 which this minimum calls for, to say nothing of the expenses which a teacher must meet which are not necessary for the worker in the factory. If the figure were raised to $1,500—the commonly accepted minimum for a worker and his family—there would be but about 6 per cent. of the teachers able to reach that standard of living. In order to obtain information regarding the relation of teachers' salaries to their necessary expenses, the superintendents were asked to record the minimal and maximal salaries paid their teachers, and also to state what good board and a comfortable room cost an elementary teacher in their community (12 months). This is the largest item in a teacher's budget and the most reliable index of her expenses. From statements of national authorities on budgets, and from several actual studies, it is estimated that the cost of board and room should not represent more than 50 per cent. of a teacher's necessary expenses. If allowance is made for the many extra expenses for the "professional upkeep" of the teacher it is probably no more than reasonable to lower the 50 per cent. to 40 per cent. In the light of this standard it is possible to measure the adequacy of established salary schedules by doubling (or multiplying by 2½ if the 40 per cent. is used) the cost of board and room for a particular city, and comparing that sum with the minimal and maximal salaries existing in that city. The following table will give the situation for the cities of the United States as shown by the medians for elementary teachers of the different groups:

Groups	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Total
Minimal Salary*	$731	$600	$650	$610	$570	$613	$614
% below $800..	74%	89%	82%	86%	95%	89%	88%
% below $500..	11%	28%	16%	12%	29%	18%	19%
Board and Room*	$500	$513	$433	$440	$414	$402	$426
Maximal Salary*	$1,125	$1,045	$1,000	$896	$800	$781	$867
% below $1,000	33%	24%	50%	73%	90%	78%	71%
% below $800	0%	6%	7%	32%	50%	57%	37%

These results show from another angle the meagreness of the financial provision for teachers' salaries. Think of the "lure" for ambitious recruits which this form of public service must have when 88 per cent. of the cities of the country establish minimal wages of less than $800, and 37 per cent. set the maximum below that figure! The picture is made but darker when the median teacher's necessary expenses (found by doubling the price of room and board) are compared with the minimal salaries in all of the groups. It is evident that the beginning teacher is not expected to live, or at least for only part of the year, upon her salary, and the picture becomes if anything more gloomy when the comparison is made with the maximal salaries. If a teacher stays long enough to reach the maximal salary she can just about meet necessary expenses. Provision for the future, and any extra preparation, hoped-for travel, or additional comforts must be forsworn or else done by the teacher receiving a median salary on a $5 margin for the year. ($857 — (2 x $426) = $5). Expressed in terms of the per cent. of minimal salary which would be necessary to meet expenses as indicated by board and room, the median is 137.5 per cent., and 99.3 per cent. for the maximal. Ninety-seven per cent. of the cities expect teachers to begin teaching at salaries which are less than their expenses in those cities, and practically 50 per cent. of the cities do not provide maximal salaries large enough to pay necessary expenses.

Another measure of the inadequacy of the present salaries of teachers and the pressure of economic restrictions is furnished by the number of teachers reported by the city superintendents as leaving their schools, and the number leaving to enter other fields of work. Sixty-six per cent. of the teachers withdrawing from any of the school systems, regardless of the cause, were receiving less than the median salaries for their respective groups. Even more significant is the fact that 42 per cent. of these went into fields of work other than teaching, and that of these, 70 per cent. were receiving salaries below the medians for their groups.

Additional evidence on the actual inadequacy of teachers' salaries is furnished by the returns from the 15,000 individual teachers. A tabulation of the answers shows that the median per cent. of salary spent for total expenses is

*For further figures on the salaries of New York teachers, see the article by Mr. Oswald W. Knauth elsewhere in this issue of *The Nation*.

*These amounts are medians for the groups.

perilously near 100 per cent. for all groups, which only substantiates the findings from the returns of the city superintendents that nearly half the teachers cannot live for 12 months on the salary they receive. If any doubt yet remains that teachers are forced to live with no margin for saving, it will be removed by examining the amounts spent by them for "recreation, books, magazines, travel, professional advancement, philanthropy, insurance, etc." The highest median amount spent for the above items by the teachers of any of the size-groups of cities was $88 in cities over 100,000, and it ranged from this to $46 in the smaller cities. Think how utterly inadequate an expenditure of $88 for all of the above items is, and yet, since it is only the median expenditure, half of the teachers in the larger cities have less than that to spend. Try to plan a year's expenditures for the items under consideration with a $75, yes, even a $25 limit in many cases. Make a list of the newspapers and magazines you want; provide for the four or five new books bearing on your problems which you need every year; decide whether you wish to visit relatives during the Thanksgiving holidays, at Christmas, or in the summer; put aside your Red Cross membership and your desired donations to church and charity—and then debate whether or not you will discount your $50 Liberty Bond, which is not yet paid for, and attend an extension course in order that you may become a more efficient teacher. Is it good business management when the people of this country force their teachers to live so close to their incomes that many such replies as the following were received: "I discontinued my magazines this year in order to buy War Savings Stamps and make our school '100 per cent. thrifty' "? Isn't it a shortsighted policy which makes a teacher decrease her efficiency in order that she may evidence her patriotism?

Or compare teachers' salaries with those received in other kinds of work. In making these comparisons the two figures which represent the earnings of teachers are $630.64 for all teachers in the country, urban and rural, and $917 for all teachers in the cities. Comparing these figures with the earnings of some representative groups from the professions, we find that the difference in salary is more than the two or three additional years of preparation would warrant. The members of the classes of 1893, 1894, and 1896 of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology ten years after graduation were earning median salaries of $3,410, $2,430, and $2,540. Graduates of the Harvard Medical School, after eight years of practice (which is about the median length of teaching experience in city systems) average over $3,000 annually, while those from the School of Law average $4,400 after the same length of time. The average income of 4,650 members of the American Society of Civil Engineers in 1914 was $4,160.

Salaries of teachers do not appear in any more favorable light when compared with the salaries of workers in other fields requiring much less training and preparation than teaching. The Monthly Reviews of the Bureau of Labor Statistics during 1918-19 reported the union scale of wages in operation in certain selected industrial cities of different sections of the United States. By comparing the wages of some of the builders of buildings with those of the builders of citizens we find that it is worth about $400 more per year to carry bricks than to carry the social inheritance of the race; $900 more per year to hammer hot iron than to mould habits; and over $1,000 more per year to erect steel frameworks than to build the frameworks of character. From the same source the average salary paid the workers in shipyards during 1918-19 was computed to be $1,411. Many of these men did not complete the elementary school and yet their average annual earnings are nearly $200 more than the median salary for high school teachers in the country, practically all of whom are college graduates. The Report of the Railroad Wage Commission gave the average salary for all employees for 1918 as $1,137, and even the two lowest paid branches of service, "messengers and attendants" and "section men," receive higher wages during the year than the average wage for all teachers. Railroad section men represent about the lowest degree of unskilled labor, and yet they are financially better rewarded than teachers. Is it any wonder that there is a shortage of competent, ambitious young men and women who are anxious or even willing to prepare for the work of teaching?[1]

In order to determine the extent to which the deplorable conditions of teachers' salaries were realized by the people in the different sections, letters were sent, late in May, to State superintendents inquiring about recent salary increases and recent legislation affecting teachers' salaries. Twenty-seven of the thirty-seven States replying have passed laws within the last two years directly or indirectly affecting teachers' salaries. It is noteworthy and significant that the two States, California and New York, which this year passed the most liberal salary laws were the States that in 1918 paid higher salaries than any other States; the only two, in fact, paying salaries which averaged above $900. The New York law is significant because of the liberal maximal salaries set, especially for New York City, where teachers in the kindergartens and the first six grades may reach a maximum of $2,160, teachers in the intermediate schools $2,700, and teachers in the high schools $3,150 or $3,650 for heads of departments. California increased its State per pupil allowance by 16 2/3 per cent., its per teacher allowance by 40 per cent., and its county per pupil allowance by 62 per cent. Many other States passed progressive legislation, while others passed laws which for those States represented real progress over past conditions and which yet were far behind standards already attained elsewhere. It will seem almost incredible to the citizens in most of the States that last year a State had to wage a lively campaign in order to establish a minimal school term of six months, and even more incredible that several States have not yet reached that standard. It is hard to see an advance in a law which fixes the maximal salary for beginning teachers with a third-grade certificate at $40 a month and provides that "boards may pay less at their discretion"; and yet conditions were much worse before the passage of this law. One State has several counties paying salaries as low as $30 per month to its rural teachers, while another averaged only $26 per month for six months to its colored female teachers. We cannot claim democratic equality in America when a whole section of our country, the Southern section, is finan-

[1] For those interested in college salaries, which are not included in this study, it is interesting to compare the above figures with the salaries paid in American colleges. Dr. H. W. Hurt, in a study of college salaries made in June of this year, found that the "median or middle salary of the 6,598 professors in the 74 colleges and universities on the Carnegie Foundation list is $2,000." "If a distribution be made of the average salary paid to professors, the average salary paid to associate and assistant professors, and the average to instructors, the median or middle average of this group is but $1,500." These figures would indicate that the average college teacher receives less than many of the skilled and unskilled trades. It would almost seem that the ten or twelve years of schooling more than the average citizen which the college teacher needs to prepare for his work are in reality a financial handicap.

cially unable to provide educational opportunities equal either in amount or adequacy to those provided in other sections. A study of the school conditions and school laws of the South, of certain sections of New England, and in some of the Middle Western States makes it very evident that there need to be sweeping reforms in the methods of financing our school systems. The only principle which can be applied to remedy this situation and which will, in its application, insure greater equality of opportunity is the principle of supporting schools from increasingly larger taxation units—from district to county, from county to State, from State to Nation. The findings of this investigation indicate that a form of national subsidy, such as that proposed by the National Education Association and now before Congress in the Smith-Towner Bill, is not only urgently necessary but will do more than any other one thing to make a democracy in more than name only.

In proposing various remedies for the present educational situation, all competent persons seem, sooner or later, by direct or roundabout roads, to arrive at the teacher's salary as the most potent element. It seems useless to say, "Increase the supply from our training schools," or "Increase the amount of preparation necessary to enter teaching," when there are no financial returns upon the investment. It is impossible to ask teachers to assist in programmes of Americanization, to assist in the assimilation of adult immigrants, to carry on health, social, and civic campaigns in their communities, and to inculcate the habits, ideals, and attitudes which the citizens of a decade hence must have, when many of the teachers are almost untrained children themselves and most of those who are not cannot afford to make the necessary preparation. To make such preparation worth while the establishment of intelligently constructed salary schedules is advocated. These schedules should start with a minimum which should be a living wage, they should offer increases large enough to represent some profit on the year's work and a recognition of increasing merit, and they should extend to a maximum large enough to make teaching a career in itself, rather than a stepping-stone to something better, a stepping-stone already deeply worn by transient pedagogical feet stepping into law, salesmanship, business, matrimony, and many other careers. These people have in many cases been a double loss to teaching: in the first place by having little heart for the work while they were preparing for something else, and in the second place by leaving teaching at a time when their experience was becoming valuable and should have been used in order to offset as far as possible the wasteful mistakes of the beginner.

To serve as an incentive to adequate preparation, to permanence in the work, and to continued growth while teaching, a salary schedule is proposed which makes the minimal salaries in cities of 25,000 or more $1,200 for teachers with normal school training, $1,400 for teachers with an A. B. degree, and more in proportion for additional graduate work represented by advanced degrees. These minimal salaries may each be lowered by $200 for the smaller cities, as there is at the present time about that much difference in living expenses. Annual increases of $100 are recommended for efficient service over a period of 6 years for normal school graduates, and over 10 years for college graduates. There should be no salary distinction whatever made between the work of teaching in the different grades, nor between the different school divisions, assuming, of course, that the amount of preparation is the same.[1]

The world has a right to look to the United States to exemplify the principles of democracy and world-fellowship which we believe in so strongly and uphold so strenuously. In turn the political and educational leaders of the United States must look to the schools of today and tomorrow to enable us to meet this great obligation. Is it to be gloriously done? Not with the means now at our national disposal. And it will not be so done until the American people become so intelligently informed on the work and possibilities of the schools that they will demand the highest possible degree of educational efficiency, and will provide as the essential to that efficiency a living and a saving wage for every person who has shown that he can do the work and consequently deserves the name of teacher.

The Boston Trade Union College

BY WILLIAM LEAVITT STODDARD

PROBABLY no single important act of a central labor body in any American city has ever met with more instantaneous and popular approval than the vote of the Boston Central Labor Union on March 16 last when the establishment of a Trade Union College was authorized and its maintenance pledged. The only murmurs of adverse criticism which were heard came from those who regretted that none but trade unionists might participate in the activities of the new school and from those who suggested that the same ends might be attained by a broadening of the Massachusetts State extension service. But with the fundamental idea of the college nobody could quarrel.

In the reconstruction programme of the American Federation of Labor, drafted by a committee appointed a year ago in June, we find under the head of education these sentences:

> It is impossible to estimate the influence of education upon the world's civilization. Education must not stifle thought and inquiry, but must awaken the mind concerning the application of natural laws and to a conception of independence and progress.
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> Education must not be for a few but for all our people. While there is an advanced form of public education in many States, there still remains a lack of adequate educational facilities in several States and communities. The welfare of the Republic demands that public education should be elevated to the highest degree possible. The Government should exercise advisory supervision over public education and where necessary maintain adequate public education through subsidies without giving to the Government power to hamper or interfere with the free development of public education by the several States. It is essential that our system of public education should offer the wage-earners' children the opportunity for the fullest possible development. To attain this end, State colleges and universities should be developed.

The second sentence of this quotation is repeated in the first announcement of the new Trade Union College. The spirit and purpose of the entire quotation animated the Boston Central Labor Union in voting to establish the college and may therefore be taken as expressing its guiding principles. In this same announcement the statement was further made: "The Trade Union College has been established by the Boston Central Labor Union in order to make

[1] The details of this schedule and suggestions for administering it will be published in the complete report of this study, to be issued by the National Education Association.

directly accessible to workingmen and workingwomen the study of subjects which will further the progress of organized labor."

Back of these declarations lies a bit of unwritten history which, though it may not all be told at this time, is nevertheless worth being partially related. For many years the Boston labor movement has been advocating the establishment of a State university, open to every class of citizen on such terms that every class could obtain the advantages of the privately-owned universities so numerous in Massachusetts. While it is doubtless true that there is a growing sentiment in Massachusetts favorable to the creation of such a university, the fact remains that there is none, and that in spite of the extension service whereby State and private universities coöperate to effect a wider utilization of the resources of education in Massachusetts, there is still a large and unsatisfied demand for yet more education. All this was brought out in the report of the committee of the Central Labor Union when it was laid before that body for action. Failing to obtain a State university, it was the opinion of Boston organized labor that labor should set up its own university if only to show the State that it was utterly in earnest in its statement that the workers of the State desired higher education.

During the preliminary days before the submission to the Central Labor Union of the final plan, several educators of prominence had been consulting with the drafting committee and preparing jointly with them the details and specifications of the college. At the same time there was in process of organization a body of teachers which contained certain names the announcement of which at once placed the new institution in a position to command the respect of the public. Few could laugh the attempt to scorn when it was known that Dean Roscoe Pound of the Harvard Law School, Professor Irving Fisher of Yale, Professor William Z. Ripley of Harvard, Mr. Francis Bowes Sayre of Harvard, and others of note had "signed up" with the labor college.

From the very first it was the aim of all those promoting the college to create an institution which should be democratic both in principle and in practice. For this reason the governing board or "committee in charge" is not fashioned after existing governing councils of American universities but is composed of a joint committee, some members of which represented the proprietors of the college, the Central Labor Union, and the remainder the instructing force. This committee, as now constituted, consists of eleven trade unionists and five instructors. Each section of the joint committee naturally is responsible to the body electing or appointing it, and the whole is responsible to the Central Labor Union before which, at open meetings, appeals may be taken. There is thus every opportunity for every kind of "faculty row" to be aired not only before the trustees but before the ultimate stockholders or underwriters of the college. Nor does the fact that the trade unionists on the committee in charge outnumber the instructors greatly matter; it is always possible for a minority to bring in a report and appeal on the basis of such report to the final authority.

Resolutions adopted by the instructors acting as a separate body declare for the right of academic freedom and assert that the function of the instructors in the college is educational and nothing beyond that.

On this basis, then, the new college opened its doors on the evening of April 7 for its first short spring term of ten weeks. The physical problems, so to speak, presented few difficulties and were easily solved. The use of rooms in a modern and well-equipped high school in the Roxbury district was obtained from the Boston School Board. Each of the twelve courses to be given during the term was scheduled for a week-day evening, from eight to ten. Members of trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, together with members of their immediate families, were admitted for the course fee of $2.50, subject only to verification by the secretary of their good standing or relationship. Registration was left in the hands of the secretary, whose desk was at the Central Labor Union.

It was freely admitted on all sides that the spring term was a trial term—a trial both of the whole idea and of methods, subjects, and instructors. It was none the less a trial of students. The Boston Central Labor Union represents somewhere in the neighborhood of fifty thousand dues-paying men and women, each theoretically a potential pupil. What were the educational demands of these people? What did they want to learn and what could be offered them? As has been indicated, the time between the authorization of the college and the opening of the courses was a trifle over three weeks, and the mere question of proper advertisement and explanation presented many difficulties. The final registration was therefore smaller than might have been expected from so large a population. But the hundred and fifty odd who enrolled and who are now taking the courses are enough to test the idea from every point of view. What the result of this test will be cannot now be stated. It can, however, be forecast.

The general subjects covered are six: English, Labor Organization, Law, Government, Economics, and Science. The English courses are three: one in the theory and practice of English composition, one in the practice of discussion, and one a survey of the great literatures of the world. The Labor courses are likewise three: the history of trade unions, shop committees and collective bargaining, and the history of the freedom of labor. The one course in Law, given by Professor Pound, is an introduction to American law. The one course in Government is a study of political processes in England and America. The one course in Economics is "a study of the economic priciples which are of special importance to labor." Under Science fall two courses: the fundamental principles of physical science, and the elements of mental science including the principles of reasoning. So much for the bare bones of the present curriculum.

English has by far the largest registration of all the courses. The courses in Law, Government, and Science are probably next in popularity, with Economics and Labor Organization coming at the end. What is the significance of any of these statistics it would be difficult to say except to point out that so-called "practical" courses, such as the first two mentioned under English, more nearly meet the needs of the trade unionists than the others. This is not, however, to argue or to admit that the rest of the courses are unpopular or not wanted, for this is far from the fact. But the average workingman who after a full day's work comes out for an evening in a schoolroom, tends to want to learn how to do something which will be of immediate use to him.

Whether out of the college thus begun will grow an institution which can eventually take rank in size and standing with other educational institutions in Massachusetts and

the United States, it is too early to say. It has set out well. Its student body is of the stuff that good colleges are made of—sober, eager, liberal-minded men and women. It is a college with a definite aim, labor organization, an aim which today is becoming less dreaded and more and more useful to the community. It is a college which affords an object lesson in self-determination and democratic government. And it is a type of college which, by the very fact of its origin in a central labor body, is easily capable of being duplicated in a hundred or a thousand other cities.

Dudley Allen Sargent

By F. N. WHITTIER

ONE of the surprises of the Harvard Commencement season was the resignation of Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent, for forty years Director of Hemenway Gymnasium. But there is one position that Dr. Sargent cannot resign, and that is his place as Pioneer in Physical Education. His work has been sane and fundamental. Exercises devised by him have been taught by thousands of physical training teachers to hundreds of thousands of students in all parts of the world. And not only the teachers trained by him, but the books and magazine articles he has written, the gymnasium appliances, exercises, and games he has invented, and the organization he has founded, have all contributed to the ever widening circle of his influence.

Dudley Allen Sargent was born at Belfast, Maine, September 28, 1849. His parents were of English and New England stock. His father dying in 1855, the boy spent most of his youth on his uncle's farm, trained by the mixture of school and work that has developed so many American boys. He was very strong and active for his age, and excelled in athletic sports and gymnastic feats. In 1869 he went to Brunswick and began to teach gymnastics at Bowdoin College while he was being prepared for college by the Brunswick High School and a private tutor. He entered Bowdoin in 1871 and graduated in 1875. It was at Bowdoin that he invented and installed many of his developing appliances and worked out the beginning of a plan of physical education for college students. From 1875 to 1878 he was at Yale as Director of the Gymnasium and as a student in the Yale Medical School. He received his M. D. in 1878. The next year he went to New York City to teach physical training and study in the hospitals. In the fall of 1879, when Hemenway Gymnasium was completed, Dr. Sargent was called by Harvard to be its first Director.

From the first the new director put the chief emphasis on all-round physical development. He at once introduced a plan of prescribed developing exercises for strengthening the weaker parts of the body, and his prescription was based on the results of a careful physical examination of the individual. The examination, which was very searching, included careful attention to heart and lungs, and about fifty measurements and strength tests. All the results of this examination were made matters of record. As this plan of examination was introduced by Dr. Sargent's pupils to other institutions, after a few years the results of over ten thousand examinations had been obtained. From these results Dr. Sargent prepared charts which made it possible to compare each person examined with the normal standard of the same age, size, and sex. Abnormalities of size and strength were thrown out in startling relief by the chart. Dr. Sargent evolved and published a handbook of developing exercises by the use of which instructors could decide what exercises and hygienic advice to give each student to correct the defects shown by the chart and the physical examination. In forty years, Dr. Sargent's department has made fifty thousand physical examinations. These examinations include eighteen thousand individuals. During that time the average height of the Harvard student has increased from 67.7 inches to 68.7 inches; the average weight, from 135.2 pounds to 141.6 pounds; the average strength has increased one-fourth.

It is a fact not generally known that Dr. Sargent's contracts with Harvard have called for only half his time to be given to the College. So, while he has given his best to Harvard, he has been free to devote much time to broader work. In 1881 he established the Sargent School of Physical Education. This school has trained many hundreds of teachers in Dr. Sargent's ideas. Another activity of a similar influence was the establishment of the Harvard Summer School of Physical Education in 1887. It has numbered on its rolls over four thousand students. He has been a pioneer in developing physical training for women as well, particularly through the Sargent Camp for Girls at Peterborough, New Hampshire, which has set the pace for the girls' camps of America and has brought a knowledge of camp life and out-of-door sports to hundreds of growing girls. Another of Dr. Sargent's interests is the Health Education League, of which he has been the president for many years. An important result of this organization has been its well-known Health Education Series, of over thirty booklets written by experts and dealing with different health subjects. Dr. Sargent has himself written valuable books, perhaps the most valuable being "Health, Strength, and Power" (1904) and "Physical Training" (1906).

Dr. Sargent's attitude toward college athletics has been sometimes misunderstood. Himself an athlete, he has always been an athletic enthusiast. Nevertheless his enthusiasm has not prevented him from pointing out certain evil tendencies in such matters. As early as 1883 he advocated regulation and reform of college athletics and made definite recommendations which aroused much hostility. All these recommendations have since been adopted with the single exception of the proposal that the annual Harvard-Yale boat race should be three miles instead of four. He has been opposed only to certain exaggerated ideas about athletics but has been an earnest advocate of athletics in their saner aspects.

Another opinion of Dr. Sargent's that has met with opposition is his low estimate of the value of military drill as a means of physical education. In the period following the Civil War numerous educators claimed great advantages for military drill as a means of securing a full and symmetrical development of the physique. As a result many towns and cities introduced military drill as the sole method of physical training. Early in the eighties Dr. Sargent showed the complete inadequacy of military drill in this respect and urged that it should be combined with setting-up exercises to prevent it from doing actual harm to the immature framework of growing boys.

One of the great services of Dr. Sargent to physical education was his early stand for its value educationally, and his fight for the same academic credit for college work in physical training courses as for the same amount of work

in Greek or Mathematics. It is true that Harvard has not adopted this principle as yet, but Bowdoin, acting largely on his advice, has given positive academic credit for work in required physical training since 1889. Other colleges have fallen into line, so that by the last statistics available, (1917) of 213 American institutions of collegiate standing, 114 had adopted the plan of giving positive credit for work in physical training. It is to be noted that Harvard has made a slight concession in requiring athletics of freshmen for next year, though without academic credit.

Those of us who have had charge of the physical examination of drafted men in the recent war have had brought home to us the recommendation made many years ago by Dr. Sargent as a result of his observation that 38 per cent. of the men drafted in the Civil War were rejected for military service: the recommendation that universal physical training be undertaken as the proper remedy. The results of our latest national examination are convincing proof that a vast number of physical defects might have been remedied or avoided by competent care during the period of school life. Defects of eyesight and hearing, the early loss of teeth, flat-foot, spinal curvatures, are nearly all preventable or remediable in their early stages. Physical instructors and school physicians, working together, could prevent or cure most of them. The result would be to save a vast amount of misery and ineffectiveness. Millions of lives have been clouded and billions of dollars lost to America by the impaired effectiveness of her people through the failure to heed Dr. Sargent's advice given so many years ago.

At a meeting of the Athletic Research Society in New York last December, to consider after-the-war tendencies, Dr. Sargent again urged the necessity of physical training for all (both men and women) instead of highly specialized athletics for a few. This time his appeal struck the keynote of the meeting and of other meetings that followed, at which the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy through their written messages emphasized the same points. As a matter of fact, the movement for athletics for all has been gaining headway recently in the colleges through the introduction of intramural sports, and bids fair to solve most of the problems of college athletics. The broader problem of physical training and health education for the whole public must be solved by the united efforts of physical instructors, teachers of hygiene, and school physicians. Many States and cities have made beginnings.

An interesting by-product of Dr. Sargent's work has been the determination of the measurements of typical male and female figures and the construction of statues representing such figures. It is interesting to note that the measurements conform closely to those of the art models of the ancient Greeks.

Dr. Sargent has shown the way. His work in basing physical education and development upon a scientific system of physical examination, his stand for the educational value of physical education, his development of athletics for women, his opposition to the exaggeration of spectacular athletics, his organization of such work as is carried on by the Health Education League, and his training of teachers wedded to no particular method of physical training but familiar with the best of all methods—all these together furnish a base upon which to build a system of physical training and health education that will bring untold benefit to the American people.

Literature

A Tragic Idyll

An American Idyll: The Career of Carleton Parker. By Cornelia Stratton Parker. Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press.

THIS is a very human story, very well worth the telling. The idyllic quality in it comes from the blissful contentment of the hero and heroine and the happy domestic setting of the tale. It is unmistakably American—American in its joyousness amid hardship, American in its spirit of venture, physical and mental, American in its lightheartedness combined with a serious enthusiasm for the right side of living; American, too, in its pathos, in its waste of human material paralleling the national extravagance in exploiting natural resources.

The story of Carleton Parker, who died in March, 1918, at the age of forty, is told by his wife, primarily as a memorial for their children. The personal tone dominates, yielding at times to a more objective note by way of citations from Parker's writings. Yet that note is justified in that Carleton Parker belongs, if not by achievement, then by gift of temperament, to the group of engaging personalities whose accomplishments are measurably less than their influence. After a college romance which led to a supremely happy marriage undertaken upon a promising talent and abundant energy, but upon no more tangible prospects, he went through years of narrow struggle and enthusiastic adventure in preparing himself to be a practical economist. His earlier experiences as a miner, as agent for a futile mining expedition to South Africa (by way of London), as an amateur journalist, as a camper in the wilds of Idaho, show his bent for turning the pages of life and his delight in first-hand contact with the realities of pioneering. A sportsman, he carried a sportsman's temper to his dealings with human nature; he was animated by a youthful sympathy with the untried and the experimental, and by the same token became readily dissatisfied with the conventional and the sheltered tradition.

To travel across the continent with a wife and a seven months' old baby in order to enter Harvard University as a graduate student and live on next to nothing; to go off alone, and wretchedly home-sick, to Germany in an attempt to make up his language requirements; to return to welcome a second son; to start again with wife and both babies for a year in Germany, which proved to be four years; to support himself in Berlin by tutoring in English, while keeping up his studies; to become as popular with professors and students in Leipzig, Heidelberg, and Munich as at home, and eventually to get a doctor's degree with a *summa cum laude;* to return, with a debt of $2,000, to an instructorship at the University of California—to do all this with the keenest zest in the enterprise and frugal pleasures by the way bespeaks a personality of no small quality. Parker's knack in getting along with men of all stations led to his appointment as secretary of the Immigration and Housing Commission of California at a good salary. He held the post for a year, and then went back to poverty and teaching. A Mæcenas appeared who recognized Carleton's worth and gave him the opportunity, in the interest of the book which was to be his message to the world, to become acquainted with the master minds of American theories and affairs. He journeyed to meet Veblen, and Dewey, and Patten, and Hall, and E. L. Thorndike, and Meyer, and Watson, and Robinson, and Taussig, journalists of New York, Cabinet officers in Washington, and all who had ideas and vision which he could use. His radicalism grew with his dissatisfaction with the accredited economics; his informal popularity and easy familiarity with students, his fraternizing with all sorts and conditions of men, did not improve his academic standing. Having been called to the University of Washington to establish a department of Economics, he was promptly enlisted in mediation with strikers on behalf of the

Government then at war and needing its utmost industrial resources, made a national reputation in this career, found himself suddenly besieged with tempting offers from many sources, overworked to keep all his many interests going, fell a victim to pneumonia, and passed away with the *magnum opus* unwritten and his life-work barely begun.

"He gave as a Federal mediator," writes one of his appreciators, "all his unparalleled knowledge and understanding of labor and its point of view. That knowledge, that understanding, he gained, not by academic investigation, but by working in mines and woods, in shops and on farms. He had the trust and confidence of both sides in disputes between labor and capital; his services were called in wherever trouble was brewing. Thanks to him strikes were averted; war-work of the most vital importance, threatened by misunderstanding and smouldering discontent, went on." "Parker," writes Mr. Bruère, "was the first of our economists, not only to analyze the psychology of labor and especially of casual labor, but also to make his analysis the basis for an applied technique of industrial and social reconstruction." Judge Brandeis speaks of him as "among the very few Americans who possessed the character, knowledge, and insight which are indispensable in dealing effectively with our labor problem." Others who met him personally or professionally are of one accord in their enthusiastic appreciation of the splendid virile enthusiasms of the man, engrossed in a life work that absorbed his tremendous powers once he had found the germinating ideas for his inspiration.

The career of Carleton Parker describes an irregular orbit around two foci: the one academic, for the magnet of his life work was the lure of teaching, the other economic, for that was his specialty, not merely as a subject of study, but as the core of his living and thinking. Any doubt that Parker's gifts and temperament fitted him for the teacher's profession must give way to the testimony of his students, and the vitality of his class-room work. It may seem to some that his talents were of a more practical type, demanding a career in which ideas could be realistically applied to men and affairs, rather than one which served by influencing future leaders. But it is part of the American academic ideal, as of no other, to combine these functions. It is only the short-sighted and inadequate provision for its realization that is both foolish and pathetic. "It is an astounding fact which his university must explain," comments a writer, "that he, with his great abilities as a leader and teacher, his wide travel and experience and training, received from the university in his last year of service there a salary of $1,700 a year!" "It is an astounding fact" that his university treated Parker more liberally than many universities treat men of his age. Mrs. Parker records that "he left the University of California a young assistant professor, just one rebellious morsel in a huge machine"; the machine must do the explaining. The poverty and hardship to which young Parker was subjected was far greater and more prolonged than that measure of struggle which tests a man's mettle and acts as a spur. Drudgery and wearing absorption in chores defeat the better purpose of men's talents. The financial economy of universities which keeps men below the comfort line is stupendous folly; and of that folly Parker was a victim, indeed a martyr. To establish and maintain costly plants, which universities are and must be, on a budget which stops at the point at which the profit of the institution is jeopardized, is a glaring instance of inefficiency. A reasonable increase in the salary scale would in many instances double the value of the plant—to stoop to the most commercial appraisal. The trouble lies in the machine, and will not be remedied until universities are controlled by the profession that makes their work possible. The case of Carleton Parker has a dramatic interest which may well be used to prevent the too frequent repetition of the tragedy.

The American university was a sore point in Parker's rebellious outbursts. "Consider the paradox of the rigidity of the university student's scheme of study and the vagaries and whims of the scholarly emotion." Commenting upon the chaotic student programmes, the schoolboy discipline and emphasis upon marks, the routine drill and absence of inspiration, he continues: "The large industry of American college athletics and its organization-for-victory concept, the tendency to set up an efficient corporation as the proper university model, the extensive and unashamed university advertising, and consequent apprehension of public opinion, the love of size and large registration, that strange psychological abnormality, organized cheering, the curious companionship of State universities and military drill, regular examinations and rigidly prescribed work—all these interesting characteristics are, as is natural in character formation, both cause and effect. It becomes an easy prophecy within behaviorism to forecast that American universities will continue regular and mediocre in mental activity and reasonably devoid of intellectual bent toward experimental thinking." The "interesting characteristic" is that the effect upon the student is of a piece with the depression or the detachment or the rebellion of the alert and progressive professor; the administrative emphasis is responsible for both ills. In holding such views Parker was but one of a growing group of men who in numbers and influence would be much larger were it not that their opinions stand in the way of their preferment so long as the control of universities emphasizes a different perspective of qualities, and distributes its offices accordingly. Hence the misleading silences and the importance of rare voices in the wilderness.

The specific protest of Carleton Parker was against orthodox Economics. "This brings one to perhaps the most costly delinquency of modern Economics, and that is its refusal to incorporate into its weighings and appraisals the facts and hypotheses of modern psychology. Nothing in the postulates of the science of Economics is as ludicrous as its catalogues of human wants. . . . It would be a great task and a useless one to work through current economic literature and gather the strange and mystical collection of human dispositions which economists have named the spring of human activity. . . . It seems accurate to ascribe the social sterility of Economic theory and its programme to its ignorance and lack of interest in modern comparative psychology." It was Parker's discovery, rather late in his preparation, of modern psychology that gave him a fulcrum from which to move upon his social problems: hence his tour to the home of the psychologists, the behaviorists, and biologists, and the students of the abnormal to gain an insight into the problems of labor and living, which becomes that of needs and their satisfaction, and thus particularly the problem of consumption. "The divorcing for inspection of the field of production from the rest of the machinery of civilization has brought into practice a false method, and the values arrived at have been unhappily half-truths. America is today a monument to the truth that growth in wealth becomes significant for national welfare only when it is joined with an efficient and social policy for its consumption." "Economics will save itself only through an alliance with the sciences of human behavior, psychology and biology, and through a complete emancipation from 'prosperity' mores. . . . The sin of Economics has been the divorce of its work from reality, of announcing an analysis of human activity with the human element left out."

In the light of the world war, which has played like an earthquake among the accepted stabilities of the social order, Economics certainly has come out badly; its vision was nearsighted, astigmatic, and belated, and it wore blinders besides. Its capacity to anticipate proved meagre, it was painfully bound to the past, and worst of all, it continues to set forth as economic "laws" what are but consequences of universal motives acting under certain conditions, and appearing as independent laws or relations of importance only because the motives and conditions are ignored. Mistaking the products of its assumptions for realities, it makes obeisance to its own creations as ordained by inexorable destiny. Even so simple and helplessly inanimate a concept as a price is endowed with mysterious power to soar, when obviously a price cannot go up unless some one pushes it up; and

the motive for the push and the conditions of its success are the whole reality. Credit is the confidence of others, and not an asset in a vault; and the State is the name of the machinery intended t secure freedom of human development.

It was, however, the more specific failure of Economics to deal with the problems of labor that urged Parker to a psychological solution. In his first report upon a labor riot, he analyzed the situation back to the conditions of living; he concluded that those responsible for these conditions were responsible for the deadly outbreak. This incident attracted attention to his ideas, for the reason that, acting as a clinical physician, he not only diagnosed but prescribed and cured.

The basis of Parker's system was elaborately borrowed; his thinking included many currents, chiefly psychological. What was distinctive was his faith in the power of the new method to refute the old economics and reform the actual handling of actual problems. And therein lies the quality of the minority leader. What is rare is the ability to stand out, if not alone at least lonely, against vested opinion and authoritative influence without yielding and yet without raising the suspicion of a personal grudge or disappointment. To replace this prejudice against the reformer with an admiration of his vivid personality seems to have been the peculiar achievement of Carleton Parker, which makes his loss even a larger cause for regret than it can be on purely personal grounds. He represents the type of men needed in many places to set things right without revolution, to speak plainly to men in power who are too commonly inhospitable to the younger vision. That his career falls in two domains to which many look for aid in the busy problems of the future—the domain of the university and of social economics—gives the story of his life a peculiar timeliness and a wider appeal.

The Debt of Education to the War

What the War Teaches About Education. By Ernest Carroll Moore. The Macmillan Company.

THE central cluster of ideas that run through the patterns of Professor Moore's pages is that knowledge must be practical, specific, and definite; that one can learn only particular things because one can do only particular things; that experiment shows (though some dispute it) that there is almost no transfer of learning except in so far as the two "things" learned share common elements; that learning useless "things" or studies for discipline is a wasteful tradition, and yet that through the inspiration of the practical, the cultural ideals must be, and will be, maintained. "The man who objects to the onrushing present-day movement to make education specific throughout and definitely preparatory for the work of life does so for one, or perhaps more than one, of three reasons. He either follows Aristotle as against Socrates and Plato and declares that knowledge exists for the sake of knowledge, science for the sake of science, and learning for the sake of learning, or he holds to the doctrine of formal discipline and believes that there are some studies which improve the mind and perfect its powers and which are therefore indispensable while we are getting an education, though we cannot after we leave school use them. Or he fears that making education definitely practical will result in such a narrowing of the course of study which each student pursues that nothing but one-sided training will result, and therefore prefers the old confused, aimless, and unjustifiable education solely because he believes it requires the student to study more different subjects than the proposed arrangement will require. There is a fourth reason which some men give for their preference for the old studies. It is that they give the student hard work and lots of it, but this justification of them overlooks the fact that the new studies provide plenty of work, too, and have the advantage of permitting the student to understand why he does it."

Now the so-called objector, who is really not a negative obstructionist but an educationalist of a different stamp, is sufficiently perverse not to believe any such thing, for any such reasons. He refuses to model himself after the man of straw thus readily perforated by the arguments advanced as part of the "onrushing present-day movement" stated in terms of Aristotle and Plato. When he is confronted with such brilliant knock-down arguments as that "it is as sensible to say that hammers exist for the sake of hammers as that literature exists for the sake of literature," he refuses to be impressed, because he has never held that literature any more than the sabbath was ordained, but that both grew up as a part of human needs and institutions undirected by pedagogical authorities; and he is well aware of the difference between hammers and pens as instruments of enforcement. The factor of the wielder always remains to be thought of. Hammers can smash as well as construct, and pens write nonsense as fluently as wisdom.

But Mr. Moore is persistent. As an illustration of what should and what should not be taught, he harks back again and again to the appalling fact that there are 400,000 words in the dictionary and only 2,000 words used by the adept, and 500 by the average man, and consequently all the time spent upon the spelling of words not used is wasted. To which "Amen, and good riddance" for the far more important reason that in any wisely fashioned educational practice spelling will take care of itself. But this is the peroration: "As long as we cling to the view that spelling is for spelling, we are so confused and uncertain that we get nowhere and no one is pleased with our attempts, ourselves and the children least of all. That we are not pleased may make but little difference, but that the children should because of our misguided efforts learn to hate learning is a tragedy more terrible and devastating even than the world war."

Such ill-advised rhetoric is pretty poor pedagogical bluster even from the author's point of view. Exaggerate the spelling mismanagement as you like, you cannot make a philosophy of education out of its blunders without stultifying the rest of your construction. Once more—on a left-hand page one reads: "In New York city recently there was a tooth-brush drill in Central Park in which hundreds of public school children took part, whose sole object was to impress the need for the care of the teeth upon them. This is a good illustration of the stress which modern society is beginning to put upon these matters." And on the right-hand page immediately opposite: "We are, I think, upon the eve of the greatest educational revival that the world has yet seen. It will be an education, however, which is not primarily materialistic. It will have for its prime purpose the culture of human ideals." Cleanliness is admittedly next to godliness, and the tooth-brush route to educational salvation is open. But this eclectic juxtaposition of views and interests gets one nowhere and raises the suspicion of an absence of perspective, which is the most fatal lack for the educationalist and tempts him to the impertinent or the grotesque.

The stumbling blocks which Mr. Moore uses as cornerstones of his foundation are the doctrine of "formal discipline," which according to him is an ancient and a pernicious shibboleth implying that there is something in studies besides content, and the doctrine of "transfer," which is held to contend that by practicing on one thing one can learn another. If we subscribe to the one we are put down as old fogies who have never advanced beyond "faculty psychology" and who make fetishes of memory, and vicarious mental exercise; if we have any hesitations as to how far experimental results may be transferred to practical problems and generalizations of larger scope we are accused of under-rating the scientific method. We are assured by Professor Spearman that "the great assumption upon which education has rested for so many centuries is now at last rendered amenable to experimental corroboration—and it proves to be false." However, Professor Dewey is quoted with approval when he lays down a common-sense view of the relation between

what one learns at school and what one does out of it, emphasizing that the two must be and should be devised upon different patterns. Yet the conclusion is adhered to that studies must take the life-form, and education must be vocationalized throughout. Another professor is cited as convinced that pursuing studies for reasons which the student cannot understand (nor can we ourselves, for that matter) leaves him mentally disorganized and ambitionless." "His idealism is gone, he distrusts his own powers, and he faces the world in a dejected and despairing condition." How many more could testify that the over-attention to the practical is characteristic of the weaker type of student who builds up a collection of vain regrets for the future.

The discussion is rather aimless and shallow and often verbal, putting new wine in old bottles and denaturing their original value. Nature does not work on that pattern; and much that we need for digestion has slight food value. So far as Mr. Moore's doctrine is true, it is a truism; and even at that it is constantly counteracted by inconsistent allowances and reservations. Freud is cited to show that a child whose parents continually quarrel will not have a normal temperament; while according to the doctrine of "no transfer" (as elsewhere applied), the child should grow up with an aversion to quarreling parents, and nothing more.

All this tendency to steer by a few points of the compass would result in nothing more serious than needless tacking, were it not that it leads to a false notion of the basis of educational theory and of the complex processes by which knowledge goes and wisdom lingers. As a matter of fact the sense of the fitness of things is not aroused by pointing out errors in the unquestioned irregular and often backward course of human attempts to shape the human mind. Educationalists, if they are to gain the prestige which their calling demands, must cultivate a larger insight and a fairer historical sense, and prattle less about evaluation. They may properly direct attention to the world war as a proof of the value of specific and definite acquisitions; but they should equally cite the evidence of the rapidity with which this acquisition was built upon the basis of a pliability and acquisitiveness of mind which somehow education, even when it is riddled with blunders, has a tendency to confer. Whether the war shows what can be done in spite of education rather than in consequence of it; whether it shows that the football fields of England had something to do with the result, despite the doctrine of transfer, which shows that football teaches only football and not war; whether the war shows that sewer-diggers made the best soldiers because they had the specific training in digging trenches which the war required, or that dwellers in subterranean excavations had an advantage in war over those used to dwellings above ground; all these queries are as well answered—and in terms of our predilections, if we prefer—as those on which an erratic philosophy of education is so readily built by the piecemeal method, which (to cite a parallel situation) accounts for the wretchedness of much of our planless and second-rate American architecture.

The problem of knowing and doing will not yield to any such simplified solution, even if based upon laboratory records; the essential point is the method of interpretation of evidence and the spirit of its application. In that field lie the real lessons which the war can teach the educationalists. To repeat: In many parts of the course traversed (notably in the essay on history) there is much sound second-rate material; and Mr. Moore's influence in his teachings may exhibit that he really is equipped to lead the minds under his care. But in spite of this reservation, there is so much of this cocksure "educationalism" astir across the length and breadth of the land that educational meetings are of all gatherings the most disappointing. Education is a science and an art in the same sense in which living is a science and an art. A professorship of education is obviously no warrant of any superior equipment to preach or practice it.

Franklin's College

The University of Pennsylvania; Franklin's College. By Horace Mather Lippincott. J. B. Lippincott Co.

THIS book is interesting, though not wholly for the reasons which the author intended. It is presented in eight chapters. The first is a story of "America's First University" and occupies about a third of the book. Of its sixty-five pages about fifty are concerned with events before 1800; about five with developments since 1900; the remaining ten with the century between. In this chapter the reader gathers illuminating facts such as that Judge Peters, who became a trustee in 1789, was a dairy specialist and sold Belmont butter in one-pound packages; that F. A. Jackson, a professor of Latin about a hundred years later, was nicknamed "Goat" because of his flowing beard; and that Philadelphia is well described as the "City of Homes." Instructed by these details but not fully satisfied by them, the reader turns eagerly to the second chapter on "The Provosts," where he is thrilled by the detailed specifications of the first provost's house together with the height of the occupant. He feels furthermore that he is supplied with a cue toward understanding the whole work in a statement apropos of the twelfth provost that "the author of this book wishes to escape the writing of contemporary history."

This wish has been only partly gratified. No contemporary history of any essential significance has been presented, but the chapter on the "Seal, Colours, Cheer, and Songs" is brought well up to date, and the chapter on "University Characters," after a preliminary discussion of some of the early janitors, Mrs. Dougherty, "Gold Annie," and Otto Reunig, a saloonkeeper, ends with a tribute to "Scotty," the ground-keeper at Franklin Field, which surpasses in length and enthusiasm the testimonials to most of the provosts. Then follows in chapter six a thirty-page discussion of athletics which is brought down to 1917, then a summary of patriotic services chiefly in successive wars, and last a concluding word on the alumni.

What does such a book indicate about the University of Pennsylvania if it is the work of a representative product? One should be cautious about leaping to conclusions. Perhaps it was not intended as a serious history. Possibly it was written for popular sale among young alumni—a sort of sublimated commencement souvenir. But this is not the fact. The book is a serious venture. The foreword starts with the statement: "The history of our venerable university has never been written." On page 73 is the unchallengeable assertion: "After all, the campus and buildings are only the shell of the university. It is a history of the life within them which is important." And the book ends with the quotation (from Newman, is it not?) which includes as its focal sentence: "The essence of a university is a spirit, a principle of life and energy and influence."

In the light of such statements and quotations and of the actual content of the book, written by the "Alumni Secretary and editor of the Alumni Register," and in the assumption, not unfair, that his point of view is that of a large number of graduates of a large number of colleges and universities, one is forced to a conclusion about higher education in America which is far from exhilarating. The only impress of collegiate training upon these men is that it makes them willing to say things which are no part of their inherent belief. Ask them what a university is and they will quote the thing that ought to be said. Listen to their talk when they are not on guard and they will betray the fact (as they do at every kind of collegiate reunion) that their college or university has given them valued friendships, and beyond this a memory of pranks, town oddities, picturesque and innocuous adventures, and athletic thrills. This is particularly true of the college generations who went out into the world in the years overlapping 1900. In the last dozen years the proportion of self-supporting students and the pro-

portion of prosperous students who regard mental industry as respectable have both increased, but the immense investment in athletic plants and the immense newspaper emphasis placed on athletic events, particularly Eastern football, tend to warp the minds of the undergraduates to no slight degree, and the professional alumnus does his uncalculated best to discount the real values of his institution by talking and acting as though it were the happy seat of an annual June jollification and the appendage to an autumnal football team. This volume on the University of Pennsylvania is not a worthy book, but it is not a negligible one, for it is written from a representative viewpoint and will, doubtless, receive a cordial reception. There is no reason in the world why pleasant gossip and jovial anecdote should not appear about the various colleges, but it should not be confused with history.

The opening sentence of the foreword is still indisputable: "The history of our venerable university has never been written." It is sincerely to be hoped that the friends and graduates of Pennsylvania who would like to have it treated as "a spirit, a principle of life and energy and influence" will find or provide an historian. Then those of us who would like to know, can join them in reading the record of its early classical days, its deeper academic traditions, its contributions to science, to the study of commerce and industry, to radical thought and enterprise, and to the cause of academic freedom.

The Harvard Law School

The Centennial History of the Harvard Law School, 1817-1917. Cambridge: The Harvard Law School Association.

As like as not the primary business of an educational institution is to educate. To those who think so the history of a hundred years of the Harvard Law School will bring a glow. The record is one of teachers and students and of intellectual achievement. Of diamonds and gridirons and victories of brawn there is nothing to be told. The major sport is thinking, and of minor sports there are none. The official history of the school breathes the spirit that animates the grateful memories of its graduates. For what alumni remember of their days in the lecture rooms of Austin and Langdell is the exaltation of intellectual combat and coöperation between the group of keen and eager students and the inquiring, unfolding, expounding, and illuminating teacher. The ideal of Mark Hopkins and the log had its first expression elsewhere, but nowhere has it been more fully realized than in the Harvard Law School.

The peculiar contribution of the Harvard Law School is the discovery and shaping of a most superior log. The case method of study and instruction which was introduced by Langdell and developed by Ames only under fire of the severest criticism has at length won its way to almost universal approval. It has been adopted by every reputable law school in the country and has been borrowed with success in the presentation of other subjects to which it is appropriate. The outlines of the story are told in the centennial history, but the influence of the new departure is best indicated by the bibliographical list of over two hundred articles discussing the case method and auxiliary problems of legal education. It is a familiar saying among law students that the case method aims not so much to teach the law as to develop the legal mind. This legal mind has often been assumed by admirers and critics alike to belong to some strange genus. The dispute over its merits may perhaps be resolved by borrowing light from the familiar saying that figures do not lie, but liars will figure. The so-called legal mind is nothing but mind directing its attention to the phenomena of the law. It has no processes peculiar to itself. It is good or bad according to the endowments of its possessor. At its best it is the capacity which analyzes and differentiates, which rejects and accepts, and which builds from approved materials the structure which so embodies the spirit of the past as to give it freedom to expand to meet the needs of the present and to foresee those of the future. In its effort to develop this quality of mind the case method studies law not as a collection of final formulations but as a continual, never-ending process of growth and adjustment. In the hands of an enlightened teacher the case method enables the student to see how legal rules originate to meet an existing need and are formed in the light of existing customs and views of policy, and to see that as needs and customs and policies change so law must change also.

The history of the Harvard Law School prior to the accession of Langdell as dean in 1870 is important chiefly for the contrast between that half-century and the one that follows. Great names there were in those early days—Parker, Story, Washburne, Parsons, and Greenleaf; but they were greater as legal authors than as classroom teachers. It was the inauguration of the case method that made the school a really great educational institution and that spread its influence from the banks of the Charles to the banks of all our rivers. It may be doubted, however, whether the case method would have made its way against the conservatism of the time if it had not been wielded by teachers and scholars and men of unusual power. The volume under review modestly confines its biographical sketches to those whose teaching days are over, but one needs only to read the chronicles of Ames and Thayer and Gray and Smith to know that Langdell with the sympathetic coöperation of Eliot surrounded himself with men who could not fail to make an enduring impress upon the minds and hearts of those who had the privilege of their instruction. The preparation of the great series of case books to which the teachers of this time devoted themselves so unsparingly made impossible the writing of comprehensive treatises like those of their predecessors. Even a cursory glance at the appendix in the centennial volume which gives the bibliography of the writings of the faculty brings amazement that Langdell and Ames and Thayer and Gray and Williston and Beale could do so much. Not more than four or five of the teachers, past or present, in other law schools can be put in the same group of creative scholars with these great names. It is still unfortunately true that most of the law teachers of the country are content to train embryonic practitioners in the rudiments and methods of the law, and for want of industry or intellect or vision contribute but little to shaping the development of the law through clarification and criticism of the piecemeal work of the judges in the decision of controversies between litigants.

Never was the need of such clarification and criticism greater than it is today, when new conditions, new needs, and new conceptions of policy underlie so many of the current problems of social control through legislation and judicial decision. The contribution of Ames and his group to legal scholarship was preponderantly the genealogical study of legal doctrine, the tracing of the authentic pedigree of the law. They gave but faint adhesion to the famous dictum of Holmes that the life of the law is not logic but experience. There was need for their work, and it has permanent value. But these are days when logical deduction from historical foundations or unquestioned premises must be supplemented and to a considerable extent superseded by searching examination of the assumptions underlying the premises. The materials of legal study are no longer confined to law books. They are found also in the writings of philosophers and psychologists, of historians, economists, and sociologists, and all others who shed light on the nature of man and his environment. Law is but one of the many institutional forces by which the lives of individuals and groups are shaped and controlled, and no one of these forces liveth to itself alone. There are hints of this important inter-relation and of its meaning for the legal scholarship of the future in the biographical sketch of Ezra Thayer, whose deanship was between those of Ames and Pound, and in the chapter on "The Future." But the point is not elaborated, although (or because) Dean Pound is the distinguished leader of the newer group of scholars who

are breaking down the artificial isolation of legal doctrine from the environment in which it originates, the ends it serves, and the sympathies it expresses, and are showing that what many still accept as an apocalypse is only the encystation in sheep and buckram of credos that have long since lost much of their hold elsewhere. But, notwithstanding this reserve, whether from modesty or the avoidance of controversial issues, those who are familiar with the work of Pound, and of Frankfurter, Scott, and Chafee, with its promise for the future, know that when the history of the present era comes to be written, it must record that the Harvard Law School did not rest on well-earned laurels but met the problems of a new day with the same vigor and vision that characterized the intellectual rebuilding of the school under Langdell and Ames.

If the Harvard Law School is losing some of its once unquestioned pre-eminence, it is not because it is falling behind in the race but because some of its friendly rivals are beginning to catch up with it. This lessening of the distance is due in no inconsiderable measure to the extent to which other law schools are manned by graduates of Harvard. There is hardly a law school in the country that does not acknowledge grateful indebtedness to the generous aid and encouragement of Ames or Pound. Under the more or less direct influence of Harvard there are today nearly a score of law schools giving a high type of professional training. It is to be hoped that the next half century will see a corresponding advance in the still more important work of leadership in the constructive adaptation of the law of the past to the needs of the present and the future. Particularly striking is the progress in this direction made by the Yale University Law School in the last few years. The time has passed when any educational institution that deserves the name can confine its ministrations to the young men and women temporarily within its walls. The bar and the bench in America need all the light and leading that the university law schools can give through the creative scholarship of their teachers and students.

Schools and Statistics

The Intelligence of School Children. By Lewis M. Terman. Houghton Mifflin Company.

School Statistics and Publicity. By Carter Alexander. Boston: Silver, Burdett and Company.

Experimental Education. By Robert R. Rusk. Longmans, Green and Co.

EVIDENTLY education is getting into the hands of men who have experience to put into it and who realize that scientific procedure in any field is an important labor-saving contrivance. The world war with its severe tests for purposes of grading and sorting has given, among other things, a new impetus to the work of intelligence measurements. Mr. Terman has shown that these methods may be applied in the school room to determine mental capacity. Such problems as promotion, the determining of courses of study, the education of gifted as well as sub-normal children, will acquire new significance in the light of his scientific investigation. The book is written primarily for grade teachers, but it will be useful also in teachers' study clubs and reading circles, valuable as an introductory text in normal schools, and worth reading by parents, especially of children varying in either direction from the norm. It will be helpful to superintendents of schools, since it emphasizes similarities and differences in the original endowment of children. Through intelligence measurements it is possible for a teacher to ascertain the effectiveness of her teaching; these may also be applied to problems of school administration, phenomena of attendance, and retardation; they may measure to some extent the growth of such qualities as definiteness, reliability, confidence, consistency; it is, however, not easy to estimate from year to year a child's growth in ideas of honor and altruism. In short, the writer's aim is to show the results of such mental tests put to everyday use in grade classification and in the general guidance of school children. Some of the workings of these intelligence tests are seen in the material on individual differences in the several grades, in the tests for school laggards, and especially in the study of the forty-one superior children. The rank and file of teachers should learn these tests—the Courtis tests, handwriting scales, tests of ability in reading, history, and composition. In many normal schools careful preparation for the Binet tests is given; with a little help the average teacher can prepare herself to use these standardized mental tests accurately enough for practical purposes. At the same time a teacher should be careful to regard all results in a tentative light, not passing judgment in doubtful or apparently pathological cases. In vocational guidance such tests will prove to be of the highest value.

School statistics are often ineffective because many educators do not know how to apply them, do not know how to present statistical materials effectively to the public. Mr. Carter Alexander's "School Statistics and Publicity" aims to make available to superintendents and classes in school administration the results of years of study in statistical theory, through reports and surveys for publicity purposes. For the school superintendent, as a publicist, must make his reports to the public, must explain situations which cause opposition to school appropriations, and satisfy unthinking taxpayers. Consequently reports containing simple and telling statistical devices are vitally necessary. We hear on every hand that reconstruction must follow the war. Now, reconstruction in the fields of finance, taxes, and revenues will be forced into the world of politics, but education will not feel the pressure of economic forces unless some crisis arises and the whole situation becomes visualized to the taxpayer. There must be some way of showing him the danger of the prevailing crisis in the administration of the schools. Hitherto, school affairs have been submerged; national taxes, political strifes, industrial readjustments, have been made far more prominent than educational reconstruction. It is the duty of the school superintendent to crystallize the desire of the public for educational progress; his chief agency will be publicity, his annual report. The object of this book is to show him how to make such a report readable to a community—intelligible and impressive. The layman, of course, is indifferent, or distrustful of all statistics. But a superintendent in whom they have confidence can make the subject seem important. He may graph his statistics, so that the essential facts of the whole and the essential details will stand out clearly. Or, he may translate them into words, transferring or interpreting into ordinary language the statistical ideas for the average man. Again, he may tabulate his results; rightly the tabulation should precede the graph or the translation—the graph being a pictorial representation of the significant facts, not unlike the cartoon. The aim of the book is to set forth typical errors in school statistics, and to indicate remedies for their ineffectiveness; it should help to arouse the public to give adequate support to the schools.

When the methods of laboratory psychology were applied in the solution of educational problems an experimental psychology was built up on scientific foundations; as one writer says, "Education had captured psychology." Experimental education now investigates all educational problems; it aims to present its data in exact quantitative terms, just as Pestalozzi insisted that all branches of instruction demand an analysis of their methods. Kant went so far as to say that experimental schools must first be established before we can have normal schools. These ideas are all set forth forcibly in "Experimental Education"; its distinguishing feature is its scientific analysis of problems concerning the child of school age. This means the investigation of his physical and his mental development, and the finding of suitable means of measuring it. In the school-room these laboratory results must be put to the test, and it is evident that here teachers can render most valuable service. The methods are those common to all the exact sciences—observation and

experiment, and after these the sound application of statistical methods. On this basis the author takes up the general physical and mental development of the child, considering later his special powers—attention, apperception, memory, etc. In all this experimental work allowance is made for individual differences in children; through scientific tests one finds out how far these are due to natural endowment, or to environment and training. Such a method is of the same advantage in education as it is in industrialism, since in both fields economic loss to the individual and to the community is prevented; there are also accruing social and moral advantages. We are coming to realize that methods of teaching are today not so important as are methods of learning; we have begun to suspect that a pupil's method of learning may not correspond with the method of teaching; he may be learning in spite of the teaching method. Through processes of intelligent measurement, work done under favorable conditions, or under fatigue, lassitude, distractions, or unusual stimuli, will be indicated by the gradual rise or fall of the work-curve. On this basis the psychology and pedagogy of school subjects are experimentally and specifically treated, processes in reading, handwriting, orthography, and arithmetic being selected by the author for study. These give objective standards of the pupils' progress, help to measure the results of the methods of instruction, aid in verifying new lines of procedure; and here is where the work of the teacher can be of the greatest value. This book will serve as an introduction to students of educational problems, and in the work of experimental education; success will depend on the coöperative activity of the army of school workers.

The Vitality of Virgil

The Death of Turnus. Observations on the Twelfth Book of the Aeneid. By W. Warde Fowler. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell.

THERE is a spot on the Palatine near the so-called wall of Romulus from which, as on a chronological map, is visible nearly the whole history of the eternal city. Rome of the kings, of the republic, of the emperors, of the popes—vestiges of it all are spread out before you: a fragment of wall whose huge stones seem to have been lifted into place by Titans; the floor and broken columns of a great basilica; palaces of vast extent and unimaginable splendor; fading images of saints on the walls of a mighty church underneath the dwelling-place of the Cæsars. Here they lie in a discord that is yet a harmony—Vestal virgins and the Virgin of the Catholic Faith; a triumphal arch erected by a Pagan emperor to commemorate the sack of the Temple at Jerusalem; Christian mosaics decorating the dome of a heathen sanctuary. Here in epitome is the long chronicle of Rome, and over it broods the spirit of Virgil. It is his image rather than that of Garibaldi which should dominate the city from the heights above the Vatican. For of it all he and his poetry are a great part. He has recorded it, unified it, given it meaning, conferred upon it an immortality more sure than that of bronze. Even during the Christian centuries, little as they understood him, his influence hardly waned. He moves through them, as Statius says of him in the Divine Comedy, like one who bears a light behind him, illuminating all the path over which his race has come. Without him the book that more than any other interprets for us the mind of the Catholic ages could not have been what it is. He is today the spokesman of modern Italy, and his language may still be heard on the lips of her children. To them he is far nearer, far more contemporary, than is Chaucer to modern Englishmen. Pronounced as his verse commonly is by Italians, with the values of Italian vowels and consonants, the Aeneid loses all its archaism and dates with Dante or Carducci.

It is important to remember this, for this is what gives Virgil a modernity that is denied to any of his contemporaries—even to Horace—and it is the perception of this that renders the Virgilian studies of certain English scholars—Mackail and Myers, for example—so valuable and so delightful. Among them, three little books of Mr. W. Warde Fowler deserve a place of honor. In 1916 he published a running commentary on the last two hundred lines of the seventh Aeneid, under the title, "The Gathering of the Clans," and in 1917 a similar commentary on the eighth Book, called "Aeneas at the Site of Rome." He has now followed these by a study of Book XII, which he names "The Death of Turnus." Each of these volumes contains a critical text of the passage under discussion, and the first of them includes a verse translation—a feature which, in our judgment, Mr. Fowler would have done well to continue. They are all pervaded by a conception that makes the whole difference between good literary editing and bad: they conceive Virgil as a living poet, and in the hands of teachers who can assimilate their method, they will go far towards forming a generation of young students to whom the Virgilian tradition may safely be committed.

Everything is here that ought to be for such a purpose. There is scholarship in abundance, but there are the precious fruits of it, too. There is, for example, a good deal of rather minute verbal discrimination—a thing inevitable in dealing with the "lord of language." To the lack of such discrimination are due the coarseness and clumsiness of much modern writing. For the truth is that all the masters of literary art have cared for words, have desired to express adequately "the vision within," and so have not been content with approximations or substitutes or compromises. To assume, indeed, that expression takes care of itself is to deny the primary law of letters—with what result to much current taste we see. The brief discourse on the verb *lustrare* in the sense of "a slow ordered movement in procession" (p. 96), the distinction between *ater* and *niger* (p. 93), and the comment upon *corusci* (p. 122) illustrate this aspect of Mr. Fowler's method.

But there are other aspects still more admirable and fruitful. There is the emphasis upon Virgil's mind, upon his attitude towards his material, upon the great moral and social end that he had in view. Mr. Fowler's interpretation will give little comfort to those who assume that the greatest of artists have no other end than art. With all his allusion and reminiscence and far-sought verbal magic, the poet, who in the Georgics had aimed to glorify rural Italy, so in the Aeneid aimed to glorify Rome and its makers—its august memories and lofty virtues, its mighty past and still more mighty future. To this end all the resources of his art are directed—from the passion of the fourth Book and the mysticism of the sixth to the touching and symbolic duel with which the story closes. To this end is devoted his amazing architectural skill, not to be matched by any narrative poet ancient or modern save the poet of the Odyssey. In this light must be interpreted his marvellous use of landscape and the affectionate fashion in which Italian place-names linger in his verse. As Myers says of the magnificent "bead-roll" of the eighth Book, with every name he confers an immortality. In nothing, however, are the poet's resources more evident than in his skill in evading the details of battle. Over all the Virgilian battlefields, and they are, in the nature of the case, many and bloody, broods a divine pity, the Virgilian tenderness, surely the most exquisite type of tenderness in literature. The pomp and circumstance of war are to him what they have become to us—less than the last thought of the Argive soldier who, dying, remembers Argos. This, we are aware, is all hackneyed and commonplace enough. This is only the Virgilian romanticism, "the sense of tears in mortal things." We mention it only because in it and in qualities like it resides Virgil's permanent hold upon the heart of the world.

Finally, Mr. Fowler lays stress, as he was bound to do, upon the poet's glorification of youth. The second half of the Aeneid is a boy's book—and a girl's, if we remember Lavinia and Juturna and Camilla. The fleeting bloom of adolescence is upon it. Turnus is the true hero of it, from the reader's point of view, and he, though pitted against the grizzled Aeneas, is

only a passionate boy. Mr. Fowler's defence of the reading *pubentes* (pp. 65, 66) is an illustration of what scholarship, in humane hands, will do for poetry. Lausus and Pallas are hardly more than children, and in commenting upon their early death and their parents' grief, Mr. Fowler takes occasion to dwell upon *pietas*, that solemn obligation of the child to the parent and of the parent to the child that is one of the glories of Roman ethics and one of the beauties of the Aeneid. We must not pause upon the indescribable loveliness of the episode of Nisus and his boy-friend Euryalus, nor upon the pervasive presence, in these last books, of the child Ascanius. By such deeds and natures as theirs, young as they are, man "rises to the stars." Virgil's vow has been fulfilled. He has made the memory of these boy-heroes of his as immortal as Rome itself.

The Dragon on the Table

The Evolution of the Dragon. By G. Elliot Smith. Longmans, Green and Co.

PRESUMABLY having exhausted his titular subject so far as usual material is concerned, the Professor of Anatomy of the University of Manchester indulges in the demonstration of a specimen out of the ordinary; none other than that ancient enemy of mankind, the Dragon, which he tracks to its far-distant lair, and boldly, like another Saint George, drags forth and dismembers before our eyes. It is no simple exploit, especially the dismembering. So complex does the anatomy of the Dragon prove, to "such a fantastic paradox of contradictions" as the result of the fancies of men of every race and land has he grown (we assume the gender), that we cannot be too thankful at his having fallen into hands expert at once in anatomy and anthropology. The Dragon is no mere yesterday's acquaintance, nor is he the creature of a single people or place. He is "the most venerable symbol employed in ornamental art and the favorite and most highly decorative motif in artistic design," "has been the inspiration of much, if not most, of the world's great literature in every age and clime, and the nucleus around which a wealth of ethical symbolism has accumulated throughout the ages," and "represents also the earliest doctrine or systematic theory of astronomy and meteorology." He is the English dragon, the Chinese dragon, the dragon from which Perseus rescued Andromeda, the dragon of the Mayas, the dragon of the Siebengebirge, the dragon of nurse's tales, and the great red dragon of Revelation, that old serpent called the Devil, all at the same time. There is no Dragon but one Dragon, and Professor Smith locates his den somewhere in southwest Asia or northeast Africa, whence he ranged over the whole earth, travelling in one main direction to Greece and western Europe, and in the other to Cambodia, Indonesia, and America, first reaching the New World by way of northeast Asia and later by way of Polynesia, the different routes and periods being responsible for well-known variations in Central America and elsewhere. It is interesting, too, and gratifying as well, in the light of his general reputation, to be told on good authority that he was originally a good dragon, "a beneficent creature, the personification of water, and identified with kings and gods." If there is anything else that should recommend him to the merciful memory of the modern generation, it is that wherever he is found he "displays a special partiality for water."

Professor Smith's book, with its three lectures on "Incense and Libations," "Dragons and Rain Gods," and "The Birth of Aphrodite," would be hard to describe by any title, but if its most original and significant contributions to thought were to determine, it would be better to call it "The Origin and Distribution of Religion." The evolution of the Dragon is only a detail in the larger speculation, though a closely interwoven detail.

The cardinal facts in the origin of religion, according to these lectures, were as follows. The great object of man's aspiration was a something, amulet or elixir, which would enable him to prolong existence. In the earliest stage, before he possessed definite ideas as to the physiology of animal reproduction, and before he appreciated the importance of vegetable fertility or had created a god in his own image at all, he had seen in the cowry-shell, which resembled the female life-giving organ, an amulet which increased fertility, and had come to regard it as "the actual parent of mankind, the creator of all living things." Having next personified the cowry as an actual woman in the form of a statuette, he had developed the Great Mother, "the first deity that the wit of man devised to console him with her watchful care over his welfare in this life and to give him assurance as to his fate in the future." The first male god, however, was a development after the coming of agriculture and the framing of a theory regarding the fertilizing powers of water. Here Professor Smith is a Euhemerist. A king whose beneficent irrigation projects brought him renown and the love of his subjects, having obtained a human-blood elixir at the hands of the Great Mother received a new grant of vitality in the next world, and became the god Osiris. Hence all religion. "Osiris was the prototype of all the gods; his ritual was the basis of all religious ceremonial; his priests who conducted the animating ceremonies were the pioneers of a long series of ministers who for more than fifty centuries, in spite of the endless variety of details of their ritual and the character of their temples, have continued to perform ceremonies that have undergone remarkably little essential change." "These early strivings provided the foundations upon which has been built up during the last fifty centuries a vast and complex theory of the soul." As for the Dragon, his first form as a benevolent beast was Osiris, the Nile, the fertilizer of the fields. As an evil being he first appears as the Great Mother Hathor herself, conceived as the enemy of mankind in dragon guise because of her slaying the human victim in order to get the blood elixir necessary for the rejuvenation of the king. Thereafter the Dragon, both as a good and as an evil power, becomes, by more or less subtle processes of the primitive mind, associated with Horus as well as with Osiris and Hathor. In the first pictorial representation he appears as "a monster compounded of the lioness of Hathor with the falcon (or eagle) of Horus, but with the human attributes and water-controlling powers which originally belonged to Osiris." Even this, however, was comparatively simple. Professor Smith finds that Babylonia, too, contributed, through Ea the fish-deity, and that "the real dragon was created when all three larval types—serpent, eagle-lion, and antelope-fish—were blended to form a monster with bird's feet and wings, a lion's forelimbs and head, the fish's scales, the antelope's horns, and a more or less serpentine form of trunk and tail, and sometimes also of head. Repeated substitution of parts of other animals, such as the spiral horn of Amen's ram, a deer's antlers, and the elephant's head, led to endless variations in the dragon's traits."

Professor Smith's book is not very well named, not very well ordered, and not always carefully phrased. The reader who pursues a way through the difficulties of repetition, digression, diffuseness, poor typography, absence of index, and the cinematographical method, so to speak, of "throwing on" evidence, will wish that the author, or the John Rylands Library, at whose instance he publishes, had allowed a little more time for their tasks. That the John Rylands Library "gave no choice" is an explanation, hardly an excuse. It is in spite of faults of arrangement that the book has a unity; which is due to the frequent recurrence of its two particular ideas, first, the practical origin of religious worship, and second, its world-wide distribution from a single definite centre and consequent oneness. The same two ideas, with an abundance of corollaries which the "amazingly complex jumble of this tissue of confusion" in the relations of the gods of Egypt and Babylonia makes possible and invites, are also what give "The Evolution of the Dragon" an exceedingly stimulative quality. Its author is independent, original, and outspoken; perhaps the

more so because he is, in a manner, a free lance, and approaches the subject "with a mind undebauched by classical schcolarship." He contradicts Sir James Frazer, "the guardian of the Golden Bough," Miss Jane Harrison of the Prolegomena, and Tylor with his theory of animism, not to mention the great Freud and others too numerous to mention. He is fertile to the point of exuberance. The execution of the investigational intentions let fall here and there throughout the book would—perhaps it is safe to say, will—result in a library of dimensions. In fact, Professor Smith will impress the reader not *too* familiar with the ways of anthropology as plethoric with ideas.

We hasten to say, however, that the trait is not wholly personal, but is to be credited in the main to the branch of learning Professor Smith here represents. For difficult explanations of easy things and for easy explanations of difficult things; for the construction of total theories on the foundation of single fragments of evidence; for the transformation of hypothesis into fact at the call of convenience; for detecting essential and significant relationships in merest accidental resemblance; for overdriving and overshooting, and for "seeing things" in general, the "science" of anthropology, or ethnology, or comparative mythology or religion—whichever we choose to call study of this kind—has established a reputation second to none. For these things, and for its eye single to the glory of religion. What sort of a world was it in which our primitive ancestors moved? Did primitive man never laugh or weep unless with a religious significance? Did he never amuse himself except in some worshipful way? Did he never draw an outline or mould a figure just for the pure pleasure of it? Did he never make a toy image for himself or his children. Could protection against heat or cold or inconvenience have had anything to do with clothing? Could a pot or a pillar ever have been just decorated, or a shell worn just because it pleased female fancy? Was there ever a non-religious thought or act? Impossible, says anthropological "science," which is always as solemnly serious as it seems to make our primeval progenitor: cremation was an attempt to send the body to the sky-world; a tree planted on a grave "is developed from and becomes the personification of "the deceased"; trephining among the ancient peoples was "to afford a more ready passage for the 'vital essence' to and from the skull"; the wand of the Egyptian king was a conventionalized representation of the uterus; the octopus on a vase is a personification of Aphrodite; a pot modelled into woman's form is always a Mother-pot; fifty centuries of trouble inspired by gold "were let loose upon the world as the result of the circumstance that early searchers for an elixir of life used the valueless metal to make imitations of their shell amulets." The unanthropologized reader is impelled to the recollection of a certain stone from hoary antiquity bearing the legend BILSTUMPSHISMARK, and "that celebrated scientific discussion so well known to all men as the Pickwickian controversy"; or to speculate on what the comparative religionists of fifty centuries hence will say, at this rate, in explanation of the fragments of twentieth century mechanical dolls, or the maple leaf of neighbor Canada, or the possibly surviving outlines of the Bull Durham Beast, or other expression of our modern worshipful habits. Ah, mechanical cult-images, beyond a doubt; unmistakably tree-worship in the twentieth century; a beneficent Dragon with the symbols of fruitfulness, and incense was burned to him! As he looks out upon the number of non-reverent things in the life of today, and then into the comparative religionist's book again on the monotonously uniform, unsmiling religiosity of primitive man, no wonder he suspects that comparative religion is positive monomania.

These latter reflections we set down not as with sinister intent to detract from "The Evolution of the Dragon," which is a highly acute and stimulating work, or from the speculations of anthropology in general, which is doing a great deal toward helping man to know himself, as well as to find amusement; but as recording the effect of anthropological doctrine upon what is called the "discriminating" reader.

American University Criticism

The Cambridge History of American Literature. Edited by William Peterfield Trent, John Erskine, Stuart P. Sherman, and Carl Van Doren. Volume Two. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE difficulties that beset the editors of a coöperative undertaking have been for the most part overcome in this "History." In critical method the various chapters are more closely harmonized than are many of the contributions to the great history of English literature to which the present work is a sort of supplement. The criterion here followed is that of American academic criticism at its best. With much gain in unity of thought and treatment there is also, of course, some loss. What we have is a chronicle of facts more often than an analysis and interpretation of literary values even in the chapters dealing with the two poets whose influence has extended furthest beyond the United States and concerning whose literary achievement, therefore, some detailed interpretation and appreciation were manifestly most necessary—Poe and Whitman. Yet Professor Campbell writes almost entirely of Poe's life and character. There are some excellent remarks upon his work as a critic, but to his poetry only a page and a half is granted, and the views therein expressed are not illustrated and justified by the quotation of a single line of his verse. The case is similar and even more marked in Professor Holloway's chapter on Whitman. This is almost entirely biographic, a most discriminating and impartial study of his character and career, with evident sympathy rather with the man than with his work, and with side-glances only at that which makes Whitman worth studying—his poetry. The same characteristic of American criticism is seen in Professor Trent's chapter on Longfellow. The critic defends Longfellow's poetry and its enormous contemporary popularity by a sort of quiet irony at the expense of the tastes of to-day. "We are less sentimental and more widely travelled" than our grandfathers, he remarks; but these are "facts which of course do not warrant us in arrogating to ourselves a taste necessarily superior to theirs." The question, all-important for the literary historian, "Why did (or does) such-and-such a work please?" is not frequently answered in the work. Fortunately, however, in the chapters on the lesser poets, for the most part, this aspect of the critic's function is not overlooked; Timrod, Lanier, Tabb, and others are interpreted and illustrated in a way of which the writers upon the greater poets have not generally availed themselves. Exception to this statement must be made in the case of Dr. W. M. Payne's pleasant study of Whittier. So also in the chapter upon Holmes and other writers of "Familiar Verse" (most happily and appropriately assigned to Professor Brander Matthews), comment upon their work is not overwhelmed by mere biographical facts.

To each of the many remaining chapters we have space to devote only a few words. In the opening chapter of the volume Professor MacMechan exhibits the sympathy that one would expect from him with one side of Thoreau's character and achievement, but we close his study with a sense chiefly of the so-called "solitary's" limitations: his self-deception, his "sermonizing," his lack of a feeling for form, his aloofness from the great problems among which he lived. Professor Thorndike's praise of Lowell's idealism, broad humanity, and culture is tempered by severe strictures upon his shortcomings in technique and the waste of his talents upon too many diverse subjects. In Professor Erskine's study of Hawthorne, the theme, illustrated by frequent apt references to persons and situations in the romances, is the conflict which arose in Hawthorne's mind when he applied what we now call the "acid test" of actuality to the theories of the Transcendentalists. The doctrine of compensation, for instance, a doctrine "peculiarly dear to Transcendental optimism," is shown simply not to work out in the actual world, where, as in "The House of the Seven Gables," suffering does not lead to spiritual profit, and innocence is not sweetened by the patient bearing of old wrongs.

In companion studies of the poets of the Civil War, North and South, Professors Howe and Mims, working along parallel lines, employ the various poems to illustrate the successive stages in the conflict and the changes in mood as the war dragged on. We are glad to note that due praise is given to Randall's "My Maryland," the most memorable poem inspired by the war. Dr. Miles's article on "The New South" includes what is often lacking in these essays—some consideration of the social, political, and economic background of the literature criticised. This chapter is followed by a genial study of "Dialect Writers" by Professor C. Alphonso Smith, who devotes much of the space at his command to the delightful creations of Joel Chandler Harris. In a remarkably well "articulated" paper Professor Pattee traces the growth of "The Short Story" from Irving, through Poe, to Bret Harte, whose "Luck of Roaring Camp" "stampeded America and for two decades set the style in short fiction." Dr. Pattee's narrative is continued through the work of Stockton, Bierce, and others to Jack London and O. Henry. After this climax it is good to read the judicious summary that "on the whole the short story episode in American literary history has been a symptom not of strength but of weakness. . . . It has been satisfied with cleverness rather than mastery, entertainment rather than instruction [surely not blameworthy], with journalism rather than literature." Writing on "Books for Children," Professor Tassin traces the change in attitude from didacticism to entertainment and succeeds in extracting from his theme more entertainment than the reviewer (with memories of "Peter Parley" and the "Rollo Books" vividly before him) had dared to expect. Professor Howe's account of "Early Humorists" is in the nature of an introduction to the chapter on Mark Twain, for which we must await the forthcoming third volume of the "History."

Several chapters deal with other branches of literature than *belles-lettres*. Senator Lodge's invertebrate and unfortunate article on Webster may be passed over with the remark that he considers, in a rambling way, the intermixture of the qualities of literature and oratory in Webster's style, with more discussion of the general characteristics of oratory than there was really room for in this crowded volume. Professor McLaughlin, in an excellent study of "Publicists and Orators," does not yield to the temptation that might have pressed upon a professor of history to disregard the literary side of his theme. Miss Ruth Putnam, writing on Prescott and Motley, introduces more "human interest" than is usual or altogether appropriate in such a setting and depends to an extraordinary degree upon quotations from contemporary critics of the two historians for her estimate of their work. Professor Bassett's account of "Writers on American History" is in the nature of an epitome of the chapters in his larger work dealing with the same subject. Professor Scott tells of the development of newspapers to the foundation of *The New York Times*, and Professor Cairns gives the parallel story of the magazines and "Gift-Books" and "Annuals" (those curious phenomena of the mid-nineteenth century). In an essay that shows noteworthy grasp of the philosophic implications of his theme Dr. Wolff studies the Congregational and Unitarian Divines and Moralists, giving most attention to Beecher and Mark Hopkins, and throwing new light upon the relations that have existed in the United States between the professions of theology and literature, particularly in the early part of the nineteenth century when the old clerical families were becoming secularized.

The editors' prefatory warning that "the division into volumes is . . . fortuitous" makes us unwilling to call attention to omissions from the work, and we must look to the final volume to fill up certain gaps which nevertheless still appear to us. The decision, announced also in the preface, to include certain living writers within the scope of this "History" is an excellent one. For the exhaustive and admirably arranged bibliographies (occupying a third of the volume), for the printing and general appearance of the book, and for the many evidences of patient editorial supervision there can be nothing but praise.

Books in Brief

AMERICAN LITERATURE AND IDEALS

"CENTURY Readings for a Course in American Literature" (Century) edited by Professor Fred Lewis Pattee easily surpasses all its predecessors in the field. The question of course remains whether it is better in teaching literature to ask students to read selections from the works of many writers or to require them to master the works of only a few; but on whichever side of the argument we stand we must praise Professor Pattee for having done practically all that can be done to help those teachers who choose the first of the two methods. If in his concern for the essentially native elements of our literature he has omitted from his collection all who wrote before 1800 except Franklin, Washington, Freneau, Timothy Dwight, Royall Tyler, Alexander Wilson, and Charles Brockden Brown, without a line of Edwards, Woolman, Crèvecoeur, Jefferson, or Hamilton, he has at least put his stress where it chiefly belongs, and has made impossible the confusion into which students are often thrown upon finding themselves in a wilderness of unfamiliar authors most of whom though interesting to specialists are generally interesting to specialists alone. By this initial economy Professor Pattee is enabled to represent the nineteenth century with remarkable wealth and variety of matter. Our popular poetry—political and sentimental—is excellently represented, and some of the greater hymns; there are thirty short stories so well chosen to illustrate the development of their type that the American short story may be better studied here than anywhere else; and copious extracts from fiction, history, and essays (particularly literary criticism), with a scantier showing from oratory, biography, and drama. Nor does Professor Pattee content himself entirely with the established authors whom all our students have read in the orthodox courses; he finds room also for Audubon, Richard Henry Dana, Jr., Melville, Ik Marvel, the Civil War humorists, Lew Wallace, Constance Fenimore Woolson, John Muir, Lafcadio Hearn, Hamlin Garland, Jack London, and O. Henry. Of his nine hundred double-column pages he devotes one-fifteenth to the eighteenth century, one-ninth to the generation 1800-1830, one-third to the New England renaissance, a little less than one-sixth to the Civil War, and one-third to the period since 1870—about half, that is, to the material produced this side the charmed circle of the Elder Classics. The doctrines of Professor Pattee's invaluable "American Literature since 1870" are thus followed, with the result that a considerable body of excellent writing is for the first time made accessible to students with moderate libraries at hand. The Newcomer-Andrews-Hall collection, "Three Centuries of American Poetry and Prose," devoted but twenty pages to what Professor Pattee calls "The National Period," 1870-1914, as against his three hundred. The open and energetic spirit shown in this shift of emphasis appears as well in the choice of authors and of their particular works, though no love of originality has been allowed to crowd out the standard performances which are standard because they are good. In fact, Professor Pattee unites so well a sound conservative judgment with a catholic liberal taste that few will quarrel with him except on those minor points of personal taste in which no anthologist can hope to please every one. The present reviewer would have liked to find in the book something from David Crockett's "Autobiography," most racy of all frontier books, from Charles Warren Stoddard's "South Sea Idyls," and by all odds something from Josiah Royce, William James, and George Santayana. Succinct characterizations of each author accompany the text, and there are useful notes at the end of the volume.

Compared with so free and masterly a compilation the "Selections from American Literature" (Rand McNally) by Professor Leonidas Warren Payne, Jr., seems cramped and "classical." Statistics here are criticism enough: Irving (the earliest author

included) has 31 pages, Cooper 10, Bryant 18, Whitman 12, Emerson 37, Longfellow 84 (including the whole of "Evangeline"), Whittier 29, Holmes 20, Thoreau 13, Lowell 33, Poe 65, Timrod 8, Hayne 3, Lanier 7, O. Henry 19, Lincoln 4, Mark Twain 7, Bret Harte 14, Joaquin Miller 5, Eugene Field 4, Riley 5, and Moody 3—and these are all. Nearly one-fourth of the entire volume is given up to notes which, though often cumbersome and superfluous, are vastly safe and sane, like the various selections in the text.

Two somewhat related books are less traditional in their method. "The World and Democracy" (Rand McNally) edited by Lyman P. Powell and Charles M. Curry has as its motto "Patriotism through Literature," and it brings together, in a mixture that already begins to seem slightly faded, addresses, essays, letters, poems, stories, a play, and a pageant—all sounding the high impassioned note which men heard with the ears of their passion during the war. Not only the louder voices of the time appear but many grave, more reasoned ones as well. And yet rarely does criticism in any of these touch actual events, or, at least, events as they appear in the light of subsequent developments. Everywhere is a radiant confidence that the highest liberal aims, expounded again and again with moving eloquence, are identical with the current policy of the Allied and Associated Powers. The heart of the volume beats in the utterance of the boys and young men, whether they were plain young fellows writing home their shy sentiments in awkward letters, or poets triumphant and ecstatic. Nothing can detract from the glory of their courage and devotion. The stories are less appealing than the letters and poems, generally machine-made or close to expansive journalism. This is also generally true of "Winning a Cause: World War Stories" (Silver, Burdett), by John Gilbert Thompson and Inez Bigwood, a school reader with a good deal of pinchbeck material and easy emotionalism. Such books as these are the seed of many myths, often high-minded and generous, but still myths.

IF there were excellent short stories which the editors of the foregoing compilations did not find, neither have the editors of "War Stories" (Crowell), Roy J. Holmes and A. Starbuck, succeeded in finding them. Restricting themselves to "American authors, American characters, American reactions," and aiming to represent as many aspects of the war as possible, the editors have selected twenty-one stories of which none have exceptional merit. In not a few, such as Dana Burnet's exciting "Christmas Fight of X157," simple narration dwarfs the plot element; others, such as Alden Brooks's crude story "Out of the Sky," are merely sketches of novels. One gathers from the preface that the book is intended primarily for college classes in the "Technic of the Short Story." For classes of returned soldiers and sailors it may have value; for ordinary classes it is more remote from the experience of the student than a collection of Russian or Scandinavian stories dealing with normal life.

TO a very remarkable degree Mr. C. H. Ward's edition of Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America" (Scott, Foresman) is abominable and dangerous. "If every high-school student," the preface begins, "knew that the governmental oppression that caused the American Revolution was 'made in Germany,' our democracy would be more secure." And the Introduction is made up of three sections, as follows: The German Foe of English Freedom, George III; The Champion of English Freedom, Edmund Burke; The Triumph of German Intrigue in 1775. Mr. Ward, a master at the Taft School, plainly thinks that his edition of a great political classic is a patriotic service. As a matter of fact, by his atrocious obscurantism he is doing what will hurt every school boy to whom this book comes. There are already enough adults who sit in the seats of complacence and heap upon the head of scapegoat Germany all the sins they do not care to expiate—the sins in this case of Anglo-Saxon reactionism, of which both Britons and Americans have been guilty. Does Mr. Ward think he is serving the better interests of his country when he sets out to make such Pharisees among children?

AVIATION

FLYING still draws its exponents more from the hangar than from the laboratory. Although Benjamin M. Carmina had reached the halfway house of an instructorship in the Y. M. C. A. Airplane Mechanics' School before writing his "Aviation" (Macmillan), he gives the impression of being more a flyer than a flying authority. "Therico-Practical," a phrase of his sub-title, is suggestive of the value of his work. No one could read "Aviation" without learning something of flight and flying machines. At the same time the work is hybrid in nature, having neither the simplicity and readability which assist the beginner to comprehend the construction and flight of an aeroplane nor the solidity demanded by a reader seeking a reference authority. "Aviation," reads the first sentence of the book, "is the branch of aeronautics that treats of gasless aircraft." Few who realize that all the manœuvres of a dirigible, including ascent and descent, are effected by the motor and the plane surfaces of the tail can accept this definition. Passages occur throughout the volume which are of a similar nature. The desire to be accurate seems to lead Mr. Carmina into intricacy and difficulty. There are, however, many happy expository passages, and the reader determined to dig through to an understanding of flight will struggle through the difficult chapters and enjoy the simpler ones. Theory of flight, process of aeronautical construction, etc., are diagramed. The works of Fales, Loening, and others have done much of what Mr. Carmina attempts, and in many respects have done it better. "Aviation," nevertheless, has the value of a more recent and a slightly more thorough treatment than these books present.

THE reader who has never touched the controls of an aeroplane will be little interested in "Air Navigation," by Captain S. F. Card (Longmans, Green). It is a book for those (now tens of thousands) who have flown or have been associated with flying. Captain Card knows his subject thoroughly, and though he requires no technical knowledge of his readers, writes so meatily and concisely that only those seeking practical information will read. British flyers should find the book valuable. It covers all questions of aerial navigation on which a flyer would seek information. American aviators, however, will find a treatment of the subject, which the United States Schools of Military Aeronautics covered in a different way, somewhat confusing, and will be more attracted to existing American handbooks, which follow more the method in which they were instructed. Such chapters as "Joining Up with a Squadron" may, nevertheless, have a value—based on the greater experience of the Royal Air Forces with actual conditions on a battle front—which an American treatment of air navigation might lack.

OF considerable use also to the many persons now looking for instruction with regard to flight, its future, and its commercial possibilities, is the "Aircraft Yearbook" (Manufacturers Aircraft Association). The doings of fourteen American aeroplane companies from 1908 to 1919 are chronicled readably. These furnish the only information available to date—outside of Government reports—with respect to industrial aviation, and offer an especially complete account of the aerial war activity of the nation in office and factory. Illustrations of practically every standard aeroplane, hydroaeroplane, and aeronautical engine in the United States are also valuable. Indeed, the reader is given an idea of the American flying industry as a whole—personnel, performances, size, and potentialities. The association of such purely historical matter with lists of government officials, aeronautical bibliographies, library classifications, etc., is incongruous; it is something of a shock to turn from the story of the JN-4 training plane or the Hispano-Suiza motor to a metrical conversion table.

THE BIBLE IN ENGLISH

"A BOOK about the English Bible" (Macmillan) by Professor J. H. Penniman is a readable manual of information for a popular audience or for undergraduates. The style is simple, the diction untechnical, the arrangement clear. There are chapters on the form of Hebrew poetry, on the background of the Old Testament and of the New, on the historical books, on the wisdom books, and on the prophets; and, finally, a series of chapters (nearly a fourth of the entire volume) dealing with the growth of the English Bible. Throughout, the author's attitude is that of one lecturing *virginibus puerisque*. Thus on page 42 we are told that the immortality of the soul is set forth in the Old Testament in a number of passages, which the author proceeds to quote; only in a footnote does he tactfully suggest that perhaps these passages do not actually refer to individual immortality at all—as indeed they do not. In other instances the author seems needlessly cautious about upsetting traditional opinions. The inclusion of the book of Jonah among the pre-exilic prophets, for example, and the author's apparent obliviousness to the fact that scholars now generally regard the whole story as a parable of Israel's providential history seen in the light of the exile and the restoration, seem the result either of extreme conservatism or of a lack of familiarity with the best modern biblical scholarship. To such unfamiliarity must be attributed the writer's treatment of Ecclesiastes xii, 13, 14, as an inherent part of Koheleth's thought, when the passage is almost certainly the attempt of some pious Jewish rabbi to render the book more orthodox, and hence more acceptable to those who objected on the ground of Koheleth's scepticism to the inclusion of his book in the canon of the Jewish Scriptures. Even more amazing still is Professor Penniman's willingness to accept Deuteronomy at its face value, without a hint that he recognizes in it a book written under the influence of prophetic ideals and found in the Temple in the time of Joshua. It is to be regretted that the writer makes no more use of his knowledge of the classics and of English literature to emphasize such literary relations and analogies as the very interesting one pointed out on page 204 between Canticles and the Idylls of Theocritus. Still more regrettable is his ignoring the relation between much of our modern thinking and the work of the prophets. The prophets actually get scant attention in the volume as compared with the priests and the sages, only sixteen pages being apportioned to them in comparison with the thirty-six devoted to a survey of Job, and the nine allotted to the Song of Solomon. The very brief comment on the individual prophets is neither sympathetic nor particularly illuminating. No reference is made to their permanent contributions to the world's stock of ethical ideas. Amos's plea for social justice, Micah's summary of religion, Ezekiel's plan for a religious Utopia, and Deutero-Isaiah's insistence that God's highest call is the call to serve, are alike ignored. Yet in spite of its limitations and omissions the book will, no doubt, be useful in acquainting its public with a literature as yet too little known.

CHOICE OF VOCATION

EVERY lover of mankind will readily agree that in a democracy the advantages of vocational guidance should not be limited to particular classes in the community. It would be unjust to proffer a helping hand to those who look forward to becoming floor-walkers, window-dressers, insurance agents, or employment managers and to withhold advice from embryonic lawyers, college presidents, United States Senators, and Chautauqua lecturers. It is evident that a worthy philanthropic motive has animated Mr. Frederick J. Allen in the preparation of his seventy-six page study of "The Law as a Vocation" (Harvard University Press). A more unimportant book on an important topic is hard to imagine. The one-page introduction contributed by Professor William Howard Taft is in keeping with the innocuous character of the body of the work. The genial ex-President assures us that lawyers are important and will continue to be so. Mr. Allen tells us that with judicial decisions "and other legal material the lawyer is bound to have some acquaintance," that "he also spends time writing letters, and doing sundry business incidental to giving advice to his clients," and that "the clients with whom the lawyer has to do are of all sorts." The public offices which require legal training in the incumbent are enumerated, the qualities which make the successful lawyer are named, the degrees conferred on graduates of law schools are catalogued, and the value of excellent professional training and of strict requirements for admission to the bar is duly emphasized. It may be that there are those who need and will appreciate the information and advice which Mr. Allen offers. Certain it is that the little volume can do no harm to any man.

ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

THE most marked characteristic of the "Introduction to Economics" (Scribners) of Professor John R. Turner is his recognition of the claims of the student. Too frequently the needs of the class-room have been subordinated to the logical development of the author's own scheme of thought. Professor Turner's language is non-technical; his arguments move forward with precision; and from first to last his treatment is clear-cut and consistent. The text is interspersed with interesting quotation from a wide variety of sources. Even the "Mutt and Jeff" cartoons enter the book to give point to an argument. If there is to be criticism it is that the author has enlivened his book with the "hippodrome" that belongs more properly in the class-room. As a teaching device the volume will satisfy those instructors who put at the head of their lists of pedagogical values a clear exposition aimed to remove all doubts. The protestants are likely to complain that it makes complicated matters entirely too simple and leaves the student in too contented a frame of mind at the end of the recitation. As a treatise on economics, the work can best be described as a variant towards the position of Davenport of the scheme of economic theory associated most closely with the name of Fetter. It is a neo-classical system of economics, centred about the value problem, and concerned with "forces," manipulations, and equilibria. Little is presented that is not familiar to readers of the works of the "American psychological school." So far as the author departs from conventional statement it is to choose new terms or to make exposition simpler. For instance, the attack upon the assumptions and logic of the "marginal utility theory" have been met by the substitution of the word "desirability" for "utility." The merit of the volume lies in making this system of economics familiar to the lay reader. Although this is the first general treatise on economics which has appeared since the war, one searches its pages in vain to find any real influence of the problems of that period or of this era of reconstruction upon the thought of the author. So far as its essentials go, it might just as well have appeared in 1913. Nor does this mean that the book contains principles of such eternal value that even the disturbance which the war has brought could do no violence to them. Its principles hardly touch its problems of reconstruction as those problems find expression in the programmes recently issued by the Garton Foundation, the British Labor Party, the Catholic War Council, and like bodies. The volume takes no account of the conception of economics as concerned with the structure of industry and the functions of agencies which make up the economic order, a conception familiar to all students of Hobson, Cooley, Veblen, and Mitchell. It seems a backward step from the clear-cut conception of social economics and the instrumental character of industry which has found recent expression in texts by Cannan and Clay and in L. C. Marshall's "Readings in Industrial Society." The author is right in insisting that the student of economics should get his "fundamentals" early; but he is in error in regarding the "fundamentals" of the bullion contro-

versy of the time of Ricardo and those of the answer of the Austrians to the first crude statement of Marxian socialism as the essentials of current economic knowledge.

Before the influence of the war upon education is spent, some study concerned with the organization and problems of industrial society is likely to become incorporated in the curriculum of the grammar school. That it belongs there requires no extended argument. At the polls the enfranchised masses pass upon matters of our common welfare, and the enfranchised masses get no further than the grammar grades. That it can be given there also seems evident. To insist that it cannot be taught in the lower grades is like insisting that mathematics or music cannot be taught there because some aspects of music and mathematics are difficult. The problem of finding pertinent material and making it interesting and significant to school children is likely to engage many minds for many years before adequate instruction can be supplied. But the gravity of the need means that every encouragement should be given to sincere attempts to provide needed material. One of the most promising of recent approaches to the problem is "Industry and Trade," a volume prepared by Professors Bishop and Keller of Yale University (Ginn). It presents an account of the basis of national industry in material and human resources; descriptions of the agricultural, animal, and mineral industries of the United States; a survey of the development of manufacturing and of transportation in this country; and, finally, a cursory statement of some of the factors affecting industry, such as marketing, finance, and labor. The volume is devoted to industry rather than to business, and its primary concern is with technique. It is avowedly descriptive, though some historical material has been introduced. Its aggregation of details means that its primary requirement upon the student is memory rather than analysis or argument. Yet, incidentally, it gives him at least a glimpse of the structure of the industrial system about him. It has little to say of the structure of industrial society, of the institutions which make it up, or of the functions which they perform. In this respect it is in striking contrast to the "Lessons in Community and National Life" recently issued by the United States Department of Education under the direction of Professors Judd and Marshall. That was an attempt to come at a grammar school course from the standpoint of the newer economics. This is an approach by merely abstracting and expanding the material on industry found in the traditional text in geography. As such it has the merit of definiteness and makes no radical break with the school curriculum.

THE evidence of an increase in our interest in problems of college teaching continues to grow. Significant of this tendency is a recent volume upon "The Teaching of Economics in Harvard University" (Harvard University Press), which contains "a report presented by the division of education at the request of the department of economics." It is indicative of a new spirit in education that the department of education was willing to undertake the investigation, and that a department of economics requested such an investigation of its own work by an outside authority. About ten years ago the first conference on the teaching of economics was called by the University of Chicago. At that time college instructors very generally affected to despise good teaching. Men outside of economics and some within the craft scoffed at the economists for getting interested in "pedagogy." Yet the conference met with hearty favor and its proceedings in published form exercised a great deal of influence in establishing better standards for the teaching of economics. Since then interest in problems of teaching has grown within the craft. The Harvard Report is valuable because it translates this problem of college teaching into tangible terms. It is a record of a thorough investigation into the aims of the teaching of economics, its relations to other subjects, the arrangement of its courses, the methods employed in teaching it, and the standards used to determine the success of the instruction. The investigators studied the literature on the teaching of economics, interviewed instructors and students, inspected class-room work, and examined the written work handed in by the pupils. The report indicates that in terms of conventional standards the work in economics at Harvard is very well done. Yet it is evident that it falls short of an adequate performance. The conclusions of the investigators are naturally most definite upon pedagogical questions which relate to organization or mechanical methods. They are least conclusive upon the most important questions, as, for instance, that of the functions of economics in the curriculum. On the whole they indicate that college teaching has not yet been established upon an adequate scientific basis, and that the current process runs largely by rule of thumb. This is true of most college teaching, and college teachers everywhere need to unite to break up this muddled old tradition.

"THE Government of Modern States" (Century) by W. F. Willoughby is an attempt, the author tells us, to meet the need of those students who wish to consider the basic principles of government and to deal with them without struggling through the miscellaneous descriptive matter with which most texts are cumbered. "The great end sought is to get clearly before the student the nature and terms of the problem that is presented to all peoples in seeking to organize themselves as States and devise machineries of government through which they can effectively act as such. . . . The author has sought to put himself in the position of a constituent assembly, or constitutional convention, beginning its work with a clean slate and free to bring into existence that form of government which it believes to be best adapted to the needs of the population on whose behalf it is acting." With such a purpose, one which the author has served through large parts of his book remarkably well, it is a little surprising that so much space is given to what Mr. Bryce in his "Essay on the Nature of Sovereignty" called "that dusty desert of abstractions through which successive generations of political philosophers have thought it necessary to lead their disciples." It scarcely seems necessary in this generation to discuss the difference between autocracy and oligarchy as legalized systems. We still have invisible autocrats just as we still have other abuses of society, but we do not discuss them as if they were among the acceptable forms of modern government. The long chapter on The Nature of the State, with its theoretical analysis of quasi-sovereignty, the individual will, and other subjects about which the average man has and can have no opinion, fits into a book on metaphysics rather than into one in which a constitutional convention is envisaged. Chapter V is devoted to two types of democratic government; and the author strives to establish the thesis that democracy and representative government are antithetic to each other. This thesis scarcely seems consistent with the statement that England, the mother of parliaments, is the most democratic government in the world. It is doubtful whether a scholar has a right to take a well-known word like democracy, which to nine people out of ten means a government in which the people have the power, and twist it into an unusual meaning acceptable to only a small proportion of those who use the word. Democracy is antithetic to autocracy; not to representative government. At least, this is the sense in which the words are used in America to-day, and usage is the source of the definition of terms. However, despite the too theoretical character of this book, it will be used in college classes in the theory of government; and it would be difficult to find others which are more suited to the purposes of a teacher who needs a text to aid him in building up a system of political thought. There is a crying need for a practical book on the organization of government as a practical matter, which most assuredly it is.

EDUCATION

POINTS of attraction and relief along the highways of the much toured educational prairies are few enough to war-

rant strong commendation. Professor Hartley Burr Alexander's "Letters to Teachers" (Open Court) may be both warmly and safely commended. They are not shoppy, perhaps for the reason that the author is a professor not of education but of philosophy. They have a broader background and a fairer perspective than seems to prevail among those who have forgotten that generations were educated and values assigned to human interests before chairs of education were established and pedagogy found an unoccupied pew which it glorified into the master-seat. Not that Professor Alexander is a reactionary pleading for the days that are past; not at all. He is a Nebraskan saturated with the newer outlook, convinced of the legitimacy of the modern claim. But he realizes that avoiding the errors of our too narrow predecessors will not meet the needs of our day or continue the real benefits of the days that are gone. The book is an admirable one for the library of small or large extent, for it is readable, simple, and direct; it has the democratic virtues which it aims to cultivate. Doubtless what elevates it above the upper middle class of respectable educational essays is not merely its philosophical foundation, but what is by no means common even among philosophers, by its æsthetic reënforcement. Professor Alexander is a man of taste who believes in taste as an element of education and an acquaintance with the spirit and the message of the arts as an indispensable trait of an educated man. The inclusion of "Pageantry" among the subjects of discussion indicates real aptitude for the art of education. The schoolyard, vocational education, school architecture, the curriculum, the foreign language question, the humanities, the life of the teacher, the meaning of the war for education: the letters are broad in scope and frankly journalistic in the best sense. The opinions are balanced and free from vagueness. They arouse sympathy and thoughtfulness and thus their appeal is at once acceptable and forceful. They bring to the reader the sense of the larger interests and their continuity through the ages, which make the meaning of education. They offset the present danger of preparing for immediate bread-winning without regard to the supreme fact that the human mind is but once young and educable and will live for all years on what education provides.

IN an address delivered in February, 1919, in the Sheldonian Theatre, Oxford, and now published as "The Place of the University in National Life" (Oxford University Press), the Right Hon. H. A. L. Fisher, President of the Board of Education, sounds the modern note that has awakened the ancient strongholds of educational England. The alarum preceded the war, but aroused slight response. The "Extension" movement of Oxford, though important and worthy, had not basis enough adequately to meet the needs of the hour. The needs that were met by the municipal foundations and the expansion of the technical training schools proved to be decisive. The ancient tradition that social classes should be separated and educational matters left to private endowment has given way to the recognition of state aid and control on the one hand, to the recognition of the freest opportunity for the well-endowed brains of the people at large on the other. Mr. Fisher's address conveys the spirit of this reconstruction in terms of commendable caution and appreciation of the older values that are associated with the names of Oxford and Cambridge.

ENGLISH

SCRIBNER'S "Modern Student's Library" is sufficiently broad in scope to admit books that require little or no annotation and other books that must be fully annotated to be acceptable to the modern student. The edition of "The Essays of Francis Bacon" belongs to the latter class. Professor Mary Augusta Scott has furnished a lengthy introduction and voluminous notes. In the case of a text that manifestly needs considerable commentary there is the greater necessity that the editor should reduce the body of notes to the minimum that cannot but be large. Professor Scott has apparently put no restraint upon her desire to annotate. Much of the commentary is excellently put together and is invaluable to the reader of the "Essays": the explanations of historical allusions, the parallel passages drawn from Bacon's other writings and from the writings of his contemporaries, the illustrations of obsolete words and constructions, and the notes upon Bacon's references to folk-lore, science, and the like. But nearly all readers could well spare the numerous parallels with Bacon's thought taken from later literature. Some of these parallels are amusing in a way that the editor doubtless did not intend. Bacon's belief that the fool who proclaims that there is no God is not himself thoroughly persuaded that there is none is not rendered more impressive by the subjoined extract from a letter from Tom Moore to Byron; nor is Bacon's remark that generals "in their hortatives put men in mind of their wives and children" made more clear by a quotation from Fitz-Greene Halleck. It was equally needless to attach to Bacon's reference to Prometheus the irrelevant information that W. M. Rossetti placed Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound" "at the summit of all later poetry." Professor Scott's introduction gives a well-ordered account of Bacon's life and examines the style, thought, sources, and subject-matter of the "Essays." All this is well-trodden ground, but Professor Scott re-surveys it with clarity and judiciousness. On the whole, and with proper caution against the dangers lurking in the notes, this edition, because of its moderate size, good print, low price, and careful, conscientious editing, deserves to be widely used in college courses that include the "Essays."

OF the many volumes of selections from the writings of John Ruskin we know of none better than the "Selections and Essays" edited by Professor F. W. Roe for the "Modern Student's Library." The introduction compresses within its narrow limits nearly all the essentials to an understanding of the text. We miss an entirely clear statement of the part that Ruskin's theory of beauty played in that development of his thought which led him eventually from art criticism to writings upon economic and social questions. The selections have been admirably made. Among the passages from "Modern Painters" we wish only that "The Mountain Gloom" had accompanied "The Mountain Glory." There might have been a somewhat fuller representation of Ruskin's literary criticism, taken, for example, from the eloquent and too little known "Fiction, Fair and Foul." And the lighter side of Ruskin's work might have been illustrated by passages from "The King of the Golden River." But an extraordinary number of the most important passages in Ruskin's writings have been brought together within this little volume, and it should meet with many readers in this centennial year of the great Victorian.

IN the "First Supplement" (Yale University Press) to his valuable "Manual of the Writings in Middle English" Professor Wells has corrected errors in the text and has added such new material as has since been written or made readily accessible. One purpose of the "Manual" was to offer a summary of all scholarly discussion concerning each important piece of writing in Middle English. The Supplement carries on this plan, adding in brief but accurate and unbiased statements the chief contentions of scholars published between September, 1915, and September, 1918. The value of such a work is at once apparent; in Middle English the various types of literature are related in the most surprising ways, and it is only after taking a broad view of the field that one can study any special portion with any degree of satisfaction. The summaries of Professor Wells are excellent aids to such a view. We are glad to notice that the author has added references to unprinted versions of Middle English pieces. Among the items that should have been noticed may be mentioned the following: (1) 'God, that al this myhtes may' is found in a later unprinted version in MS. Additional 5901 in the British Museum. (2) The various short poems in MS. 27 Emmanuel College, Cambridge, are omitted. These include the 'Ave Maria,' 'In Manus Tuas,' the 'Pater

Noster,' and the familiar rhyme lamenting the three cares of life—that we must depart, yet know not when or whither. It begins 'Boe ware goe ih boe.' (3) The unprinted religious and secular lyrics in MS. 383/603 Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, should also be mentioned. The religious poems include a Christian carol beginning, 'Virgo rosa virginum' and another on Thomas à Becket beginning 'A, a, a, a, nunc gaudet ecclesia.' The secular lyrics are interesting because of their possible relation to non-extant popular poetry. 'Rybbe ne rele ne spynne y ne may'; 'Alas, alas, the wyle that euer y coude daunce'; and 'Byrd on brere y telle yt to' are the first lines of the three most important of these lyrics. The First Supplement is a valuable addition to an indispensable handbook on Middle English. In a field so varied and complicated it is only by gathering all the miscellaneous bits of knowledge together that we can hope to keep from wandering in a circle; our advance, here more than in modern studies, depends on our knowing all that is discovered. It is to be hoped that the First Supplement will be followed in due time by others.

STRAW from which the last grain of wheat was long since culled is picked over in Edwin Gordon Lawrence's "Sidelights on Shakespeare" (The Stratford Company). The title seems to promise illustrations of the plays from some new point of view, but we have instead discussions of Hamlet's sanity, of Shakespeare's indebtedness to the Bible, of the Baconian hypothesis, of the types of Shakespeare's characters, and of Shakespeare's revelation of himself in his plays. In an astonishingly naïve chapter on "The Disputed Plays," "Pericles," "Titus Andronicus," and "Timon of Athens" are peremptorily ruled out of the canon. "In the opinion of the author, these three plays were entirely written by other men." The author should turn to the opening of the fourth act of "Timon" and to Act III, Scene i of "Pericles" and then endeavor to revise his opinion. Mr. Lawrence reaches the conclusion held by all recognized authorities on Shakespeare with regard to the possibility of Bacon's authorship, but in his reasoning he evades the more plausible arguments of the Baconians and is apparently unaware of any later contributions to the discussion than Ignatius Donnelly's. He belongs to the old school of what Bernard Shaw once called "Shakespeare-fearing Englishmen," for he ascribes the dramatist's ability to portray character to an almost superhuman insight into the workings of Nature, and he has no conception of the theatrical and literary traditions that accomplished so much in the shaping of Shakespeare's characters. Though Mr. Lawrence refers repeatedly to both "the young student" and "the more mature student," it is difficult to determine for what class of readers his book is intended. With few positive errors, it contains absolutely nothing new, and nowhere is there a single observation that establishes the necessity to have published it at all.

MR. A. M. D. HUGHES'S edition of Carlyle's "Past and Present" (Oxford Press) is a model of editing. There is an admirable introduction—a really competent handling of the social and industrial background of the book and of its philosophic background as well. Not only are the facts of the industrial situation from 1785 to 1843 stated fully and clearly, but the main currents of thought—the ideas of Coleridge, Newman, Bentham, and Mill—are shown in their relation to Carlyle's own thinking. This last is a service to admirers of the book that we do not remember to have seen elsewhere performed. There is a careful analysis of Carlyle's attitude towards the radicalism and socialism of his day which should be of much interest to those modern socialists, and they are many, who regard him as a prophet of their Faith. Besides the introduction, there are almost a hundred pages of careful and informing notes; few books need annotation more. If the edition has a fault, it is that Mr. Hughes makes so little application of Carlyle's ideas to present-day problems, and this seems to us a pity in dealing with one of the most modern of books. But no doubt mature readers may be trusted to do it for themselves.

THE volume of "Russian Short Stories" which Mr. Harry C. Schweikert has edited for the Lake English Classics (Scott, Foresman) conveys the substance and spirit of Russian fictional art about as well as a single small volume can do it. Eleven writers are represented from Pushkin to Kuprin, and the remarkable kinship of soul in most of the stories is evidence either of a firmly settled literary convention or of the persistence of unflinching honesty and pity and humaneness as dominant traits in the great Russian novelists. We can imagine this book being used in college not only in connection with the history of the novel, but by the sociologist as a source book for illustrating Russian character and social motives. What we cannot imagine is its use in the schools for which it is professedly intended. The high-school student, though perhaps not he alone, brought up on the romantic situations and the artificial technique of the western story, is likely to be dazed by the remorseless realism and the sober, uncompromising artistic sense of the Russians, and he may find the characters, too, a baffling mystery. Unfortunately, the editor's introduction and preliminary notes afford no illumination in essentials to those who approach the stories unprepared.

MANY persons have come to consider the writing of short stories, if not a trade, then the most mechanical of fine arts; and courses in short-story writing have come into our colleges along with the other "vocational" studies which have recently invaded the curriculum. Blanche Colton Williams, author of "How to Study 'The Best Short Stories'" (Small, Maynard & Co.), numbers among her titles "Instructor in Short-Story Writing, Columbia University (Extension Teaching and Summer Session)"; and in the preface she says: "I not only believe that one can 'learn to write'; I know." By way of proof she names several of her former students, of one of whom she records: "Her stories have been running in *Scribner's* for some months; she worked only a year in my class at Columbia before producing finished narratives." It is with this professional, rather than a distinctly literary, interest that Miss Williams has produced her latest book, which is an analysis of the tales in the annual volumes of "Best Short Stories" compiled by Mr. Edward J. O'Brien since 1915. The discussion of many of the stories is introduced by a statement from the writer, who has been induced to tell the germ of the plot as it first came to his mind, and often to recount other details of composition. A few have gone farther and presented their favorite theories regarding the short story; thus, Mr. Sinclair Lewis contributes a long attack on "technique." None of these statements is of the value of Henry James's prefaces, yet any glimpse into a literary workship may be interesting. Miss Williams's own analyses of the stories are brief and sound. They follow no set form. Tney are sometimes stated succinctly, sometimes developed by a few suggestive questions. The volume, though most useful to the student who wishes to learn the tricks of his trade, contains some things of interest to the general reader of Mr. O'Brien's collections, and of value to the critical student of fiction. Unfortunately the author and the story-writers who tell of their own work take themselves with a seriousness that is very amusing.

TEACHERS of freshman composition should accord a grateful welcome to the manual on "Sentences and Thinking" by Professors Foerster and Steadman (Houghton Mifflin). "The authors of this little book," says the preface, "instead of seeking comprehensiveness, have sought absolute essentials; instead of following tradition blindly, have worked out a new approach to freshman rhetoric—the substance being old, of course, but the mode of presentation, it is hoped, fresh and attractive because it is philosophical in a simple way." The approach is indeed fresh, and at the same time eminently sensible and practical. The fundamental features in the composition of a sentence are presented with scientific precision and with a constant eye on the difficulties encountered by the average freshman. Questions of punctuation, grammar, and rhetoric appear in

their natural relationship. The principles of sound sentence structure are treated under Subordination, Parallelism, Emphasis, and Economy—a more flexible scheme than the conventional rhetorical trinity. We do not know of any book that is as admirably suited as this to the requirements of the first few months of the college course. The definite purpose and unified motive conspicuous in Foerster and Steadman's manual are missing in Professor H. S. V. Jones's "Words and Sentences" (Holt). This book is eloquent of the gap between the ideal content of a course in writing and the preparedness of the students. In beginning with a section on the derivation of words and their development, and the discrimination of words of closely connected meanings, Professor Jones ascribes to the freshman or wishes to inspire in him a lively linguistic sense. But is this possible before the student has learned the elementary definitions of the parts of speech, to which the second half of the book is devoted? Aside from the more ambitious treatment of diction, the manual aims to cover the same ground as the familiar handbook, but it is distinguished by a greater wealth of exercises.

GREEK AND LATIN

THERE are changing fashions in text-books as well as in everything else. It may be said of Professor Harry E. Burton's school edition of "The First Six Books of Vergil's Aeneid" (Silver, Burdette) that it is very much abreast of the times in the stress placed upon simplicity of treatment and conciseness of presentation. Thus, we find an introduction which comprises only eleven and one-half pages treating of Vergil's life, works, and reputation, the story of the Trojan War and the adventures of Aeneas, manuscripts and bibliography, and the versification of the poem. The text of the first six books follows, the long vowels of Book I being marked. As ability on the part of the pupil to read Latin at sight is now, more than ever, being insisted upon, and as many teachers wish variety of reading material, the editor adds some thirty pages of verse from Latin poets, which include seven passages from the last six books of the Aeneid. The notes (pp. 213-296) are very brief and generally helpful. Relegated to an appendix (pp. 397-434) are some illustrative passages from various poets from Homer to Tennyson; these are meant primarily for the use of teachers. Of the thirty-four illustrations those which are taken from photographs of the actual places and from ancient works of art are well selected and good. Very many teachers will certainly not thank the editor for placing the notes at the back of the book instead of at the bottom of the page; they may, in fact, think him untrue, in this old-fashioned feature of his edition, to the avowed aim of saving time for the student and holding his interest. In general this brief edition of the first six books of the Aeneid promises to be useful, although, after all, it is the immortal poetry of the great Roman bard himself which makes the indelible impression upon the sensitive student, and in this it is the inspiring and well equipped teacher who must play the all-important rôle.

In "Everyday Greek" (University of Chicago Press) Professor Horace Addison Hoffman has presented in the brief compass of 107 pages much useful material which should be of value to a large class of students and their instructors. Even opponents of lengthy study of the classical languages urge the necessity of an elementary knowledge at least of Greek and Latin for the proper and intelligent understanding of the English language and scientific nomenclature. Medicine, in particular, bristles with terminology of Greek origin, and it is really pitiable, as Dean Vaughn of the school of medicine of the University of Michigan would testify, to observe the bewilderment and despair of the young medical student innocent of Greek and Latin as he tries vainly to understand and learn the technical terminology of his future profession. Sir William Osler says in his recently published address: "Men of science pay homage, as do no others, to the god of words whose magic power is nowhere so manifest as in the plastic language of Greece." He then quotes some humorous and true verses from *Punch:*

> Botany relies on Latin ever since Linnaeus' days,
> Biologic nomenclature draws on Greek in countless ways;
> While in medicine it is obvious you can never take your oath
> What an ailment means exactly if you haven't studied both.

Professor Hoffman's little manual will be of greatest service to students who have had a little Greek or to those who wish to review the elements as found in English, yet it will serve as an introduction for students studying privately. A brief discussion of the Alphabet, Parts of Speech, and Formation of Words is followed by a series of Word Groups for Study, and the presentation is concluded by a Vocabulary, an Index, and a Key to Derivation.

Students of the Classics will welcome "Latin Epigraphy" (Cambridge University Press) by that indefatigable British scholar, Sir John Edwin Sandys. The well-known author of "A History of Classical Scholarship" and editor of the very useful "Companion to Latin Studies" contributed to the latter work the chapter on Roman Inscriptions. In the book before us Dr. Sandys has expanded this brief chapter into a "short and inexpensive 'Introduction to the Study of Latin Inscriptions' which may be useful to classical students who are interested in Latin literature, but are not necessarily aiming at becoming specialists in Latin Epigraphy." Although England has given us an excellent "Introduction to Greek Epigraphy" by Roberts and Gardner, the present work is the first introductory manual of classical Latin Epigraphy to be published in that country. Previous works in this field have been those of Hübner, Cagnat, and Egbert. A novel feature in Dr. Sandys' manual is the opening survey of the principal references to, or quotations from, Latin inscriptions in classical authors. This is followed by chapters on Modern Collections of Latin Inscriptions, The Archaic Latin Alphabet and Earliest Inscriptions, Epitaphs, Dedicatory and Honorary Inscriptions, Inscriptions on Public Works and on Portable Objects, Documents, Language and Style, Restoration and Criticism. Six Appendices conclude the volume, which are devoted to Roman Names, Roman Officials, Roman Emperors, Six Historical Inscriptions, Sixty Abbreviated Inscriptions, and Abbreviations. Among the six historical inscriptions of especial interest is a new revision of the text of that very important imperial document by the hand of Augustus himself, "Res gestae divi Augusti," and the preamble of the Edict of Diocletian which attempted to fix a maximum price for provisions and a maximum rate of wages.

It is a regrettable fact that Plutarch, a favorite ancient author of our fathers, is largely unknown to the present generation. Recent excellent translations should be of great aid in rescuing him from this undeserved neglect. For example, Professor Perrin's versions of the "Lives" are now available in the Loeb series. In 1913 there appeared the first volume of "Selected Essays of Plutarch" (Clarendon Press) translated by Professor Tucker, containing the following compositions: On Bringing up a Boy, On the Student at Lectures, On Fawner and Friend, Advice to Married Couples, the Dinner Party of the Seven Sages, On Garrulousness, Concerning Busy-bodies, On Moral Ignorance in High Places, and On Old Men in Public Life. The second of this same series has just appeared, being a translation by A. O. Prickard of Essays in dialogue form (with one exception), comprising about one-eighth part of Plutarch's "Moralia." These essays are as follows: On the Genius of Socrates, Three Pythian Dialogues, On the Instances of Delay in Divine Punishment, From the Dialogue 'On the Soul,' On Superstition, On the Face which Appears on the Orb of the Moon. The usefulness of the translation is enhanced by the brief introductions to the several essays and an index.

HISTORY

NEVER was muse so versatile as Clio, nor lady so ready to take up with the fashions of every passing year. She

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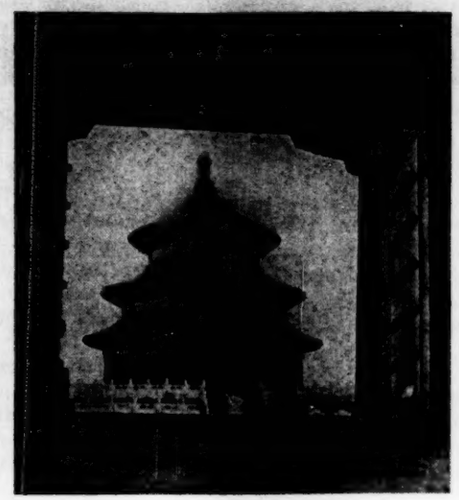

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clothes herself as an epic with Herodotus, changes to the dramatic with Thucydides, becomes oratorical with Livy, epigrammatic with Tacitus, and Voltairean with Gibbon. Nowadays she is "scientific" and journalistic. When that noble scapegrace, Sir Walter Raleigh, employed the leisure and privacy of a prison to write history, he could do no other than adopt the current Puritanical ideas, political and moral. The courtier so regardless of the expense of cloaks breathed the bracing air of liberty as he portrayed the story of ancient tyrants. The gentleman who had been so free both of action and opinion now found that "the end and scope of all history is to teach by example of times past such wisdom as may guide our desires and actions." His supreme aim in writing was to convey moral and political instruction in the style of the contemporary dramatists. If, as Augustine and Schiller have assured us, world history is indeed the world tribunal, Sir Walter, like his fellow-countryman, Lord Acton, was forward to take a place as judge on that exalted bench. But how the court repeatedly reverses its own verdicts may be entertainingly read in Professor Charles H. Firth's lecture on "Sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World" (reprinted from the Proceedings of the British Academy, vol. 8, by the Oxford University Press). The book was suppressed temporarily by James I for "being too saucy in censuring princes," was put to good use by Milton and Cromwell, and has since been alternately, but for diverse reasons, rejected and loved by each successive generation of readers.

FOUR monographs recently published throw considerable light into certain dusky corners of our national past. Miss Grace Gardner Griffin's "Writings on American History: 1916" (Yale University Press) needs no further comment—or praise—than the statement that she has here maintained the standard set by the previous volumes of her excellent annual survey. Mr. Don C. Seitz has reprinted from the "Complete Collection of State Tryals" of 1719 the spirited and amusing "Tryal of William Penn & William Mead for Causing a Tumult at the Sessions held at the Old Bailey in London the 1st, 3d, 4th, and 5th of September, 1670" (Marshall Jones) in a pleasant volume which contains besides the "Tryal" only a rather casual Foreword and a concluding note upon the Zenger trial of 1735, when Andrew Hamilton for the defence cited the important case of Penn and Mead. In "Letters of Thomas Jefferson concerning Philology and the Classics" (University of Virginia), Professor Thomas Fitzhugh imbeds the pertinent utterances of his hero (for Jefferson to him is very much a hero) in a glowing, often pompous commentary, which cannot, however, obscure the interest of the materials here assembled. Professor Fitzhugh thinks that Jefferson was a transcendent sage and scholar. What he shows is that Jefferson, most brilliant and versatile of amateurs of learning, concerned himself through an active life with philology and the classics, comforted himself with them in his old age, and repeatedly said shrewd, penetrating things about them and their high place in a democratic society. Professor Wilbur C. Abbott's "'Colonel' John Scott of Long Island" (Yale University Press) is of all these monographs the most engaging. In these exhaustive yet genial pages "Colonel" Scott, that graceless picaro, is followed through all the traceable turns of his extraordinary career as bound-boy to the husband of Cassandra Southwick in Massachusetts, untrustworthy real-estate trader in Long Island, sharper in England, profit-hunter at the court of Charles II, adventurer and liar-general again in New York, the West Indies, and Guiana, spy and informer during the tangled days of the Popish Plot, hired bravo of the Duke of Buckingham, aspirant (bigamously) to the hand of Lady Vane, murderer of a hackney coachman, and perjured witness against Samuel Pepys, whom Scott accused of being a Roman Catholic. Scott's astuteness failed him when he made such an enemy, for Pepys, with an eye to future vengeance, relentlessly collected all that could be found out about the bogus Colonel. "Probable nowhere in the world," says Mr. Abbott, "is there so complete a record of the activities of a private individual." These manuscripts, now made use of, have taken their revenge, and Scott stands clearly forth as one of the most unadulterated rascals in history. The style of the book is a little compact and crowded for fiction, but the impression it leaves when it has been read is that of a whole cycle of rogue romances epitomized.

MATHEMATICS

IN the revised edition of their "Solid Geometry" (Allyn and Bacon) Professors Slaught and Lennes have devoted more attention than has been their custom to the appearance of the page and to the preparation of a usable textbook. While a considerable amount of metrical work is given, the authors have recognized that the mission of demonstrative geometry is to introduce the student to the meaning of demonstration as applied to figures of three dimensions, and not to dwell unduly upon "real" problems of doubtful reality. The prerequisite propositions of plane geometry are conveniently listed, and the authorities needed in the proofs are referred to by number. The treatment of incommensurable magnitudes is to be commended, being based upon a set of assumptions that are adapted to the mental powers of the pupils. Some approach to the scientific treatment of this topic is given in an appendix. Four portraits of famous geometers are inserted, but the fact might well have been mentioned that two of the portraits are fanciful and that the dates relating to Thales are merely conjectural. The index is satisfactory as to the terms included, but the reference to sections instead of pages will probably be regretted by most users of the book. One of the most unsatisfactory features is the illustrations. Some of these are very poor, only a few display any attempt at perspective, most of the figures have no perspective at all, and at least one (page 59) has the vanishing point actually in front.

THE work by Ernest R. Breslich on "Correlated Mathematics for Junior Colleges" (University of Chicago Press) is one of several of a similar nature that have recently been prepared. These books are intended to meet a demand for a textbook that shall give to freshmen in college a general all-round view of the mathematics which may now require their attention. It is a healthy sign that the colleges are experimenting with a course designed to give such a preliminary survey as shall show the nature of mathematics as a whole, leaving students free to pursue thereafter one or more special branches as their tastes and needs may dictate. It is impossible to say at present whether the result will be generally fortunate, but doubtless in many cases the student will find such a course valuable. The danger of superficiality, of feeling that one knows analytic geometry, for example, after simply touching its surface, is always present in a course of this kind. We have so much superficiality at present in American education that this danger needs to be recognized during the experimental period. In this work Mr. Breslich has been more successful than he was in his attempts to "fuse" such distinctly different subjects as algebra and demonstrative geometry in his books for the high school. On the other hand he has been less successful in obtaining applied problems to illustrate the uses of the abstract work. In general it may be said that the author has elucidated the essential features of the traditional college algebra and of plane analytic geometry. As in the Slaught and Lennes geometry, the index references are to sections instead of pages, the reason for departing from a general world custom not being apparent.

THE "Unified Mathematics" (Heath) by Professors Karpinski, Benedict, and Calhoun is a more pretentious work than the one just mentioned. Mr. Breslich has provided an amount of material that can easily be covered in a year, while the "Unified Mathematics" will tax the ingenuity of most instructors who expect their classes to make the attempt. Mr. Breslich's work is surprisingly deficient in applications, while the "Unified Mathematics" contains a large number of prob-

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lems of the modern type. Mr. Breslich presupposes a knowledge of plane trigonometry, while the authors of this work give a fairly extended treatment of the subject. Mr. Breslich confines his attention chiefly to college algebra and plane analytic geometry, while the "Unified Mathematics" includes a study of commercial algebra, an introduction to solid analytic geometry, and some work on poles and polars. In spite of the amount of material given by Professor Karpinski and his associates, it may fairly be asked whether the best selection has been made. The trigonometry and the review of algebra must, under present conditions, be included, although not necessarily to the extent here given. There is also a good argument for giving an introduction to plane analytic geometry, for including such portions of advanced algebra as are needed in the subsequent work, and for giving a little information concerning the calculus. In such a survey the student can test his powers in the various lines of college mathematics; and if he drops this subject at the end of the year, he will have at least a fair knowledge of the significance of these several great branches of the science. It would therefore seem that the authors might better have given less attention to modern geometry, solid analytic geometry, and theoretical trigonometry, and have devoted a little space to elucidating the meaning of the calculus. The book has a good index, but the tables are poorly printed.

IF one were called upon to name the distinguishing feature of the "Applied Calculus" (Van Nostrand) by Professor Robert Gibbes Thomas, one would doubtless call attention to the valuable collection of practical problems which it contains. In this respect the work resembles Professor Perry's "Calculus for Engineers," the textbook published many years ago by Sir George Greenhill, and the German treatise by Professor Autenheimer. As the author himself admits, the distinguishing feature is not mathematical rigor. For the purposes for which this work is intended, however, the less rigorous treatment is legitimate, there being no more reason for failing to make use of intuition in the calculus than for neglecting to appreciate its value in other branches of mathematics. The pure mathematician will regret, for example, to see dx defined as a rate of change, although for practical purposes this definition is both teachable and usable. The book will stand or fall, therefore, on its success or failure as a practical class manual for students in applied mathematics. For this purpose the general range of the work is satisfactory. When an instructor considers the question of the use of the book by the student, however, he will find himself in doubt as to the adequate ratio of the exercise material to the explanatory matter. When the student has read the first forty-four pages of text he has encountered only two exercises, eighteen problems in all. In the entire work there are only forty-five exercises, and it is probable that instructors will generally regret that the problems were not distributed more freely throughout the book. The author has given most of the answers in connection with the respective problems instead of grouping them at the close of the work. This plan has certain advantages but it is not the one usually favored.

THE "Junior High School Mathematics" (Holt) by E. H. Taylor and Fiske Allen is one of several series that have recently appeared under this or a similar title. Books of this kind represent a new movement in American education, namely, an effort to abandon the traditional sequence of topics in elementary mathematics and to conform more closely to European models. There is little doubt that the work in arithmetic in the seventh and eighth school years has not given results commensurate with the time usually expended upon it, and when teachers can be found who are capable of following the European plan, it is reasonably certain that better results can be obtained by profiting by the experience of the older countries. The authors have already published a work intended for the seventh school year, and now, in the book under review, they have endeavored to supply the needs of the year following. In this they have been more successful than in their earlier attempt, their work giving the impression of a more definite purpose. They have wisely concentrated their attention upon the useful portions of algebra and upon the more important applications of business arithmetic. Whether they have done a good service by interpolating a certain amount of elementary intuitive geometry in the midst of their work on algebra is doubtful, particularly as this work may easily be adapted to the preceding grade, but such questions can best be answered after actual tests in a considerable number of schools.

ROMANCE

OF the making of first-year books in French there is no end, possibly because the first book is the only one which can be counted upon to yield the maker more than the cost of his paper and typing. Good French "Methods," however, are distinctly profitable, and always welcome when the student too finds his profit in the author's wise selection and arrangement of material. Such a book is the "Cours Pratique de Français pour Commençants" by Professor E. B. de Sauzé of the Cleveland schools (Winston). Written by a Frenchman who has had many years' experience with American pupils, this new French course combines the advantages of both the direct and the grammatical methods. The vocabulary is well-chosen, easy, and practical; it stimulates, by the use of cognates, the early assimilation of French as a real means of expression, and the pupil is at once made to feel that the language is really a living one. Grammar is but a means to an end—the end of practical use; and its essential points are not presented so fast as to preclude a complete oral mastery of them all. The books seems very well adapted to the junior and senior high schools for which it was probably written; but much of the material is too juvenile to interest in the same degree the average American college boy. The book's chief deficiency—for dull pupils at least—would appear to be the incomplete vocabulary. It must also be borne in mind that the direct method, even as here presented, should only be taught by a Frenchman, or an American able to speak very fluent French—an ideal condition certainly, but one practically unattainable in poorly paid high-school faculties. None the less this ideal condition must be realized if our American school children are ever to attain any mastery of foreign languages.

FROM a French publisher comes another "Méthode directe de Français, avec notation phonétique." In "France" by Madame and Monsieur Camerlynck (H. Didier), we have a book very attractive in format and arrangement, but adapted apparently to grammar-school rather than high-school pupils. Written entirely in French, and lacking a French-English vocabulary, the book is nevertheless so well illustrated that the intelligent pupil will probably require little help from his teachers. The text describes the life of a brother and sister in a French family, and takes the student through the ordinary events of the school year with the hero and heroine. Thus the vocabulary of daily life is naturally presented. There are frequent reviews, and, as in the "Cours Pratique," a good selection of children's songs and verses. But the best feature of this book is its use of the International Phonetic Alphabet. At the end of the volume is given a complete transcription of all the connected passages in the text of the lessons—an extremely valuable addition for the teaching of correct pronunciation.

PRACTICAL readers to supplement the direct method are nowadays much in evidence. The latest is "Aux Etats-Unis" by Adolphe de Monvert (Allyn and Bacon). This book is made up of a series of chapters on American cities and pictures of American life, from New York to the Yellowstone Park, from Niagara Falls to Texas and the Far West. Although made-to-order, these travel impressions, presented in dialogue form, are not lacking in value and interest, supplemented as they are by questionnaires and a vocabulary. The

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average teacher will probably prefer a book dealing with French rather than with American life, such as this author's first volume, "La Belle France."

OF French texts there are fewer this year than usual. A new edition of Mérimée's "Colomba," by Professor Victor François (Macmillan), is chiefly noteworthy for the French exercises based upon the text, to serve as a basis for conversation and composition. But why should we have four or five editions of this story, which, although a masterpiece, too often leaves behind it a notion of the vindictiveness of the French!

A SHORT translating dictionary is considered one of the necessary evils in language-study, and probably the compilers of such books are Machiavellian rather than conventional. The second (English-Italian) volume of "A Short Italian Dictionary" (Cambridge University Press) by Alfred Hoare has the usual characteristics, but with the advantage of pleasing and serviceable type and format. The book is intended primarily for English students of Italian. One would therefore expect full indications of the troublesome Italian tonic accent. They are lacking. Thus, in *chierico, socievole, comodo,* nothing tells us that the accent does not fall on the penultimate. On the other hand, in *montenegrino* the *i* has an acute accent, which appears superfluous. Another defect is the lack of adequate gender-indication. *Mano* is not specially pointed out as feminine, and *guardia*, a guardsman, is not distinguished as to grammatical gender from *papa*, the Pope, although *guardia* is feminine and *papa* masculine. The exact meanings of words are by no means uniformly given. Under *to season* we find *render acconcio, stagionare, abituare, acclimare; condire; agguerrire.* But we are left to guess—except for the dubious aid of a semi-colon—how best to season soup or lumber or a forward young man. Such exact information would perhaps make the book over-large, but some space might have been saved for it by the exclusion of colloquialisms like *soger*, for soldier, and certain shortenings of proper names.

SCIENCE

D. H. PEACOCK'S "Joseph Priestley" (Macmillan), the fourth booklet of the Men of Science division of the Pioneers of Progress Series, published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, is a very readable biographical sketch of the versatile minister, educator, and scientific experimenter who wrote such books as "Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion," "Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit," "History of Electricity," "Laws and Constitutions of England," "Lectures on Oratory and Criticism," and "Experiments on Air." Such titles suggest the field of the mental life of the man who regarded theology as his life work, but whose claim to fame is based upon the experiments on air in connection with which he discovered oxygen (1774) and many important chemical compounds. "The Realities of Modern Science" (Macmillan) by John Mills, though an interesting book for the general reader, is somewhat misnamed, because it deals only with physical science and especially with the recent developments known as physical chemistry. It will be a useful book for many whose ideas of physics and chemistry are largely based upon college courses of twenty years ago, and also for the general reader who does not have to begin by forgetting many things learned from textbooks written in the days when electron theories of the electrical composition of matter, the relations of electrons to energy and to matter, and other conceptions of recent physical science were either entirely unknown or only vaguely suggested. The "Source Book of Biological Nature Study" (University of Chicago Press) by E. R. Downing will be valuable for teachers of nature-study in the elementary schools. It is a natural-history account of selected common plants and animals which experience has shown are of interest to school children. It should be made available in every school where nature-study is taught.

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